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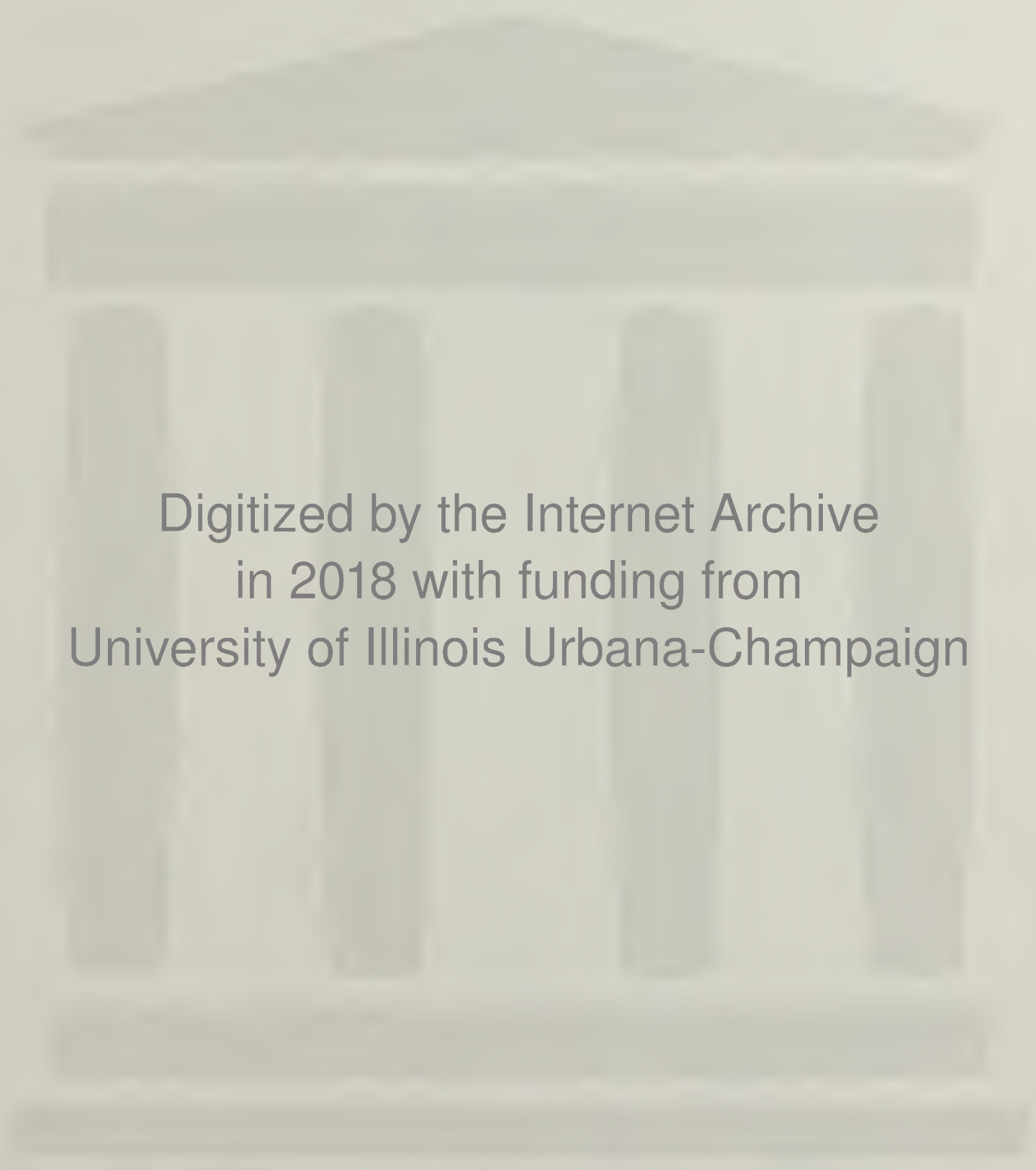
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PROGRESS OF EDUCATION REFORM IN JAPAN\$TO



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Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
<p>Item 11. International affairs</p> <p>The international exchange of education, science and culture is extremely important for Japan that is intending to become a member of the international society and cooperate in the progress of the world as really peaceful and cultural nation. Already students were sent overseas to study abroad and professor exchange program has also been started. (See Chapter IV-L)</p>	<p>Scientific & cultural researches are going to be promoted by establishment of contact among learned societies and associations, domestic & foreign, concerning the international exchange of extracts of scientific magazines rendered into European languages. (See Chapter VI—C.)</p>		
<p>Item 12. Financial aid to private schools</p> <p>Private schools are subsidized by the National Treasury every year. Besides, they are allowed to receive loans for expenses for rehabilitation of war-damaged facilities. Contributions to private schools may also be exempted from taxation. (See Chapter IX-L)</p>			
<p>Item 13. Expansion of scholarship system</p> <p>The scholarship program is actively conducted through the Japan Scholarship Society. And this work is gradually becoming more active. (See Chapter IV-K)</p>			<p>It is necessary to largely increase the national expenses for the scholarship program.</p>

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
Item 7. Through informal talks & discussions of various bodies We are taking every chance of recommending the holding of autonomous informal talks, discussions, etc.			

VI. Higher Education

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
Item 1. Start of new-system university The democratic 6-3-3-4 school system, the so-called single track school system, was established in accordance with the School Education Law, and 4-year new-system university made its start from 1948. (See Chapter IV-A)			<p>By the execution of the new-system university equal opportunity of receiving university education was established as a system ; however, the means of granting scholarship to promise students should be reinforced so that this system would yield proper results.</p> <p>The relation between the contents and method of general culture, and the relation between general culture and professional education leave room for further study.</p>
Item 2. Subjects of new-system university The subjects of the new-system university are composed of the general culture subjects and the subjects related to professional knowledge and technique. (See Chapter IV-C)			
Item 3. Establishment of University Accreditation Association The University Accreditation Association was established with a view to substantial enhancement of university, organized by the universities which have the 5-year or longer history since their institution and have reached to a reasonable level, and is conducting various projects by the spontaneous efforts and mutual assistance of the members with a view to raising the quality of the universities. (See Chapter IV-B)			
Item 4. Provision of university establishment standards In order to elevate the level of universities it is necessary to provide for the standards for chartering of universities to be complied with at the establishment of universities. At present there are university accreditation standards and other criteria established. (See Chapter IV-B)			
Item 5. Establishment of the University Chartering Council As an advisory organ for the Minister of Education concerning the chartering of universities, the University Chartering Council is established.			

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
<p>1) PTA having been established after the war, parents are joining teachers in the efforts of enlightening their environment. (See Chapter V-F)</p> <p>2) In conformity with the views of PTA Divisional Council, compilation and distribution is being made of data regarding the organization, running, etc., of PTA.</p>	<p>Many people concerned are trying to set up a national conference of Japan, & Ministry of Education is backing it up.</p>		
<p>Item 2. Public libraries</p> <p>1) Library Law has been set up. The new institution of libraries and the principle of opening them free to the public have been established.</p> <p>2) Having set up the standards for establishing and running public libraries, we are trying to better and complete these libraries.</p>			<p>Establishment of Library Law has shown new libraries what course to take. But the present finance of cities, towns or villages makes it difficult for them to carry out the plan.</p>
<p>Item 3. Public museum</p> <p>We are having talks and making data for establishing and running museums. (See Chapter V-B)</p>	<p>We are contemplating establishing Museum Law on the spirit of Social Education Law.</p>		<p>In establishing Museum Law, the extent of the facilities being vague, considerable difficulty is expected.</p>
<p>Item 4. Citizens' public hall</p> <p>As the center of new social education closely connected with the locality's social life, the citizens' public hall has been set up. (See Chapter V-A)</p>			
<p>Item 5. Training leaders of social education</p> <p>Every year we are giving training and instruction for leaders of social education to leaders of youth education, laborer education, supervisors of social education, persons concerned with citizens' public halls, libraries, physical education, recreations, audio-visual education. (See Chapter V-H)</p>	<p>We intend to give instruction and training to leaders of education.</p>		
<p>Item 6. Establishment of advisory committees at Ministry of Education</p> <p>For promoting social education, Social Education Council, Health & Physical Education Council and Coorespondence Education Council have been set up.</p>			

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
<p>Item 6. Publications for the sake of teachers</p> <p>The Ministry of Education have kept on compiling "Courses of Study" and other guides so that they may serve the teachers as reference materials for new education. (See Chapter III-C)</p>			
<p>Item 7. Formation of teachers' unions</p> <p>Teachers' unions were organized in as early as December of the year of the war's end. (See Chapter III-E)</p>			
<p>Item 8. On teachers' social standing and qualifications</p> <p>Teachers' social standing and qualifications have been improved by the legal measures of the Law for Special Regulations concerning Educational Public Service Personnel, the Law for Certification of Educational Personnel, and others. (See Chapter III-B, D)</p>			
<p>Item 9. Reform of teachers' training education</p> <p>Under the basic principles that all teachers should be of the grade of university graduation, the teachers' training education has been reformed sweepingly. (See Chapter III)</p>			

V. Adult Education

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
<p>Item 1. School activities :</p> <p>a) School extension</p> <p>Throwing open personnel & material equipment of schools for social education, we are giving years on end series of cultural, technical & summer lectures, and, through prefectural boards of education, are holding community classes. (See Chapter V-D)</p> <p>b) Correspondence education</p> <p>Establishing Correspondence Education Council, we are deliberating upon establishing correspondence education system. (See Chapter V-E)</p> <p>c) Establishment of P. T.A.</p>			

IV. The Teaching Method and Teachers' Training Education

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
<p>Item 1. Reform of the teaching method</p> <p>As to the teaching method, it has been so reformed that you may have the children and pupils work hard at learning activities voluntarily in accordance with their own interest and ability instead of cramming abstract knowledge into them one-sidedly as in the pre-war days. At the improvement towards this new child-and pupil-centered education, the Ministry of Education has prepared "A Guide to New Education," "Courses of Study," and others for teachers' information. (See Chapter I-C)</p>			<p>The new education means that the teachers not being instructed one-sidedly by the Ministry of Education in regard to curricula, are to constitute by their own initiative and device ones that meet the needs of children, pupils and the community.</p> <p>To this end, however, conditions are that most of the teachers are still extremely inadequate in both scholarship and guidance.</p>
<p>Item 2. Utilization of school libraries, broadcasts and motion pictures</p> <p>Along with the reform of the teaching method, the completion of school libraries and the use of the audio-visual teaching materials of broadcasts, motion pictures, and others are paving a new way for the method of instruction. (See Chapter I-J)</p>			
<p>Item 3. Teachers in-service education</p> <p>We are now holding authorized courses for the Law for Certification of Educational Personnel with a view to getting upper-grade certificates acquired on the basis of the said law. Moreover, establishing correspondence education lectureships in 50 national universities, we have the method now in operation of acquiring credits by correspondence. (See Chapter III-3)</p>			
<p>Item 4. Courses for major personnel related to education</p> <p>Courses have been in force for major personnel related to education like Educational sperintendents, teacher consultants and youth leaders since the fall of 1948. (See Chapter VIII-F)</p>			
<p>Item 5. Teachers' research meetings</p> <p>Under the joint auspices of the prefectural governments and the Ministry of Education, workshops for secondary education have been put in operation since 1949. (See Chapter III-C)</p>			

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
<p>Item 6. Supply and Equipment</p> <p>(1) School lunch was executed and 7,300,000 pupils of primary schools were supplied with it.</p> <p>(2) For the retrenchment of expenses for education, copies of the Handbook of Exemption of Commodity Tax were distributed.</p>	<p>(2) From this year the Research Council of Standard of School Supplies and the School Supplies Mediation Conference were set up, and reference materials for completion of scientific equipments were offered. Schools have a tendency to be provided with school supplies of better quality.</p>		
<p>Item 7. School Constructions (see Chapter IX—A)</p> <p>(1) The rate of rehabilitation of war-damaged schools between 1946 and 1950 was 31.6%. ¥ 11,731,000,000 of subsidy was given between 1947 and 1950.</p> <p>(2) For coeducation, the remodelling of new system lower secondary school buildings is going on with a small sum of national subsidy.</p> <p>(3) A small sum of national subsidy has been granted for the equipments of schools under 6-3 system.</p> <p>(4) For the school lunch facilities, a small sum of the national subsidy is being granted.</p>	<p>We are striving for their rehabilitation. The area per pupil in primary schools is being repaired in elementary schools.</p>		<p>(1) Owing to the shortage of funds and materials, rehabilitation is delayed. So, a large sum of national subsidy is earnestly desired.</p> <p>(2) Only 10 to 20 per cent necessary sum is subsidized.</p> <p>(3) To complete the equipment for classrooms and special rooms and the equipment for the occasional course, more national subsidies are required.</p> <p>(4) No more than 4.3 per cent of the required sum is subsidized. So, a considerable sum is desired to be granted from the national treasury.</p>

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
<p>5) As for the status of teachers and their salaries, the Law for the Special Regulations concerning Educational Public Service was enacted, and teachers were guaranteed of their status (see Chapter III—D)</p> <p>Their salaries were also raised to the level of general government officials or higher.</p> <p>Item 3. Right of Ministry of Education, Prefectures and Local Administrative Blocs.</p> <p>The Ministry of Education, (see Chapter I—B)</p> <p>(1) Board of Education: The Board of Education Law was enacted in July 1943, and the boards of education were established in all of the prefectures and the major five cities and in some of the cities, towns and villages. Consequently, the decentralization of education and the independence of educational power were established.</p> <p>(2) The system of teacher consultant was established by the Board of Education Law (see Chapter VIII)</p> <p>Item 4. Financial Help.</p> <p>Item 5. Salaries for Teachers</p> <p>First of all the salaries for the national and public school teachers were raised to the level of or higher than general government officials. (see Chapter III—D)</p>	<p>No nursing school is established for the present.</p> <p>The minimum standard of teachers' salaries shall be decided by the law. (see Chapter III—D)</p> <p>The standard educational expenses for operation of the public school shall be secured by the law. (see Chapter IX)</p>		<p>(1) In practicing the Board of Education Law, the following great problems still remain unsolved.</p> <ol style="list-style-type: none"> 1. To establish a financial power of the board of education. 2. To exclude other administrative organs' interferences. 3. To decide the unit of establishment of local boards of education rationally. <p>(2) The system of teacher consultant is needed to be made more secure. The further consideration should be given to this status, treatment and salary.</p>

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
(11) In June, 1950, 'National Language White Paper' was published to clarify character and administrative policy of the National Language Council status quo of National Language and its objective points.			

III. Educational Administration of Elementary and Secondary School

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
<p>Item 1. Basic Principle of Education</p> <p>Equal opportunity of education, prohibition of politically and religiously partisan teaching at government and public schools, etc. are shown in the Fundamental Law of Education (See Chapter I—A)</p> <p>Item 2. Basic Change and Necessary Adjustment</p> <p>(1) Using of Imperial rescripts and mandates at the ceremony, worship of His Imperial Majesty's portrait, etc. were abolished.</p> <p>(2) With the enactment of the School Education Law, the nine year compulsory education system was established, followed by the system of upper secondary school and university (6-3-3-4 system) (see Chapter II—A).</p> <p>(3) The principle of coeducation is established, in accordance with the Fundamental Law of Education, in national and public schools. Private schools can do as they please. In almost all the public schools and more than half the upper secondary schools, coeducation was practiced in 1949. (See Chapter II—B)</p> <p>(4) The compulsory system was enforced in the education for the handicapped as provided for in the School Education Law, and each Prefecture has established one or more such schools (see Chapter II—D)</p>	<p>(4) As soon as the compulsory system is completed for the primary school, that for the lower secondary school is to be set about (see Chapter II—D)</p>	<p>(2) The free compulsory education and free school system for the upper secondary school are considered financially difficult (See Chapter IX).</p> <p>Increase of kindergarten is not practiced satisfactorily for the economic reason. (see Chapter II—C)</p>	<p>(2) Especially, the lower secondary schools are short of school buildings etc., and it is regretted that owing to the national retrenchment policy, the construction does not make progress for the adequate education.</p> <p>(4) In schools for the blind and for the deaf, the compulsory system is extended to the third grade at present. It is a matter of congraturation that the education for the handicapped has been promoted by this.</p>

II. National Language Reform

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
Item I. National Language Reform (See Chapter VII)			
(1) In Nov., 1946, 'Modern Use of Syllabic Signs' was established.			<p>In school education, by the introduction of 'Limitation of Daily Use Chinese Characters' and 'Modern Use of Syllabic Signs', the burden of learning on the side of pupils is successfully reduced.</p> <p>To our regret, there are quite few who are cooperative among the writers while newspapers and magazines are giving full cooperation.</p>
(2) In Nov., 1946, 'Limitation on Daily Use Chinese Characters to 1,850' was established.			
(3) In Dec., 1946, 'List of Japanese Reading of Daily Use Chinese Characters' was established.			
(4) In Feb., 1948, 'Annexed List of Daily Use Chinese Characters' was established, under which number of Chinese to be taught in compulsory education, was limited to 861.			
(5) In Apr., 1949, 'List of Type of Daily Use Chinese Characters' was published with an aim to standardize type.			
(6) In June, 'Improvement of Official Language' prepared by the Official Language Improvement Committee, was notified by Cabinet Secretariate. Consequently, Official Language has become much simplified.			
(7) To unify the methods of spelling in Roman Letter, research and study are being conducted by the Subcommittee of the Sectional Committee for Roman Letter Investigation in the National Language Investigation Committee.			
(8) In 1947, with the proclamation of 'Gist for Execution of Roman Letter Education' the course has been included in curricula in compulsory education. In April, 1948, Roman Letter Textbooks for the Elementary and the Lower Secondary Schools were compiled by the Ministry of Education.			
(9) The former National Language Council which had been established since 1934, was amalgamated to the Roman Letter Investigation Committee which was established in 1948, to make more attentive study on the basic problems pertaining to national language.			
(10) In December, 1948, the National Language Research Institute was established to make further investigation and study on National Language problems at the request of the National Language Council, Diet and also of Government and people.			
			(7) Diversity of spelling method in Roman Letter is disturbing Roman Letter Education. Therefore, its unification is desirable at the earliest possible time.

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
<p>cational and home-making courses are established as required.</p> <p>(2) Besides, they are also available as optional. ¥ 1,800,000 was subsidized to 60 schools for vocational education in 1949.</p> <p>(3) In 1949, "The Investigation Committee for Vocational Education and Vocational Guidance" was established.</p> <p>(4) Director of vocational Education was appointed in each prefecture with exception of three prefectures.</p> <p>(5) From 1947 on, inservice education has been conducted for teachers and leaders of vocational education.</p> <p>(6) "The Gist for Teaching Method", "Guidance Book", "Data", etc. were published.</p> <p>(7) 785 of the Comprehensive Upper Secondary Schools had been established up to 1949.</p>			<p>courses, it is quite difficult to cultivate man of vocation.</p> <p>Among the text-books for vocational courses, those having a small publication issue can be served as ordinary reference books.</p> <p>Society at large is prone to ignore importance of vocational course. Accordingly, very few pupils select this course.</p> <p>(7) Instead of Comprehensive Upper Sec. Schools where lie many obstacles to vocational education, independent vocational Upper Secondary Schools should be established.</p> <p>Although budget for vocational education was curtailed on the ground of "Shoup's Recommendation," it should be re-inserted.</p> <p>'Vocational Education Law' should be drafted so that nation itself may assist in these concerns.</p> <p>Establishment of 'All Japan Vocational Education Society' is desirable. (The movement for this cause is already under way.)</p>

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
<p>(2) From 1948 on, subsidies have been granted for the establishment of equipments such as base-ball field, track and field, swimming-pool, gymnasium, etc. (¥ 83,000,000 for 1950)</p> <p>(3) Athletic apparatus was excluded from economical control in 1949.</p> <p>(4) Physical training leaders were cultivated through cooperation between the Ministry of Education and local authorities both in 1948 and 1949.</p> <p>(5) The Investigation Committee for Health and Physical Training was established.</p> <p>(6) Regulation on Physical Examination was revised in March, 1949, whereby physical examination has been being.</p> <p>(7) "School Health Plan" was drafted. Guidance and advice for its execution are being given.</p> <p>(8) Chair of "Public Health" was established in universities.</p> <p>Item 7. Vocational Education (See Chapter I-I)</p> <p>(1) In the Elementary School, right idea on vocation is to be imparted through general courses, especially, social and science courses, etc. In the Lower Secondary School, vo-</p>	<p>(3) Tax exemption and reduction of price for athletic apparatus are under consideration.</p> <p>(4) Short course of the leaders of physical training and recreation be offered more than twice annually.</p> <p>(5) Publication of "The Gist for Execution of Health Plan in the Elementary School., Execution of Health Education based on the above-mentioned.</p>	<p>(4) Due to budget shortage, rapid cultivation of leaders is hardly possible.</p>	<p>organization. Financial basis is not solid.</p> <p>(2) Around urban areas, problems of land and finance form bottle-neck.</p> <p>(3) It is a great pity that free purchasing of athletic apparatus is beyond our reach by financial reason.</p> <p>(4) Establishment of training organ solely devoted to the cultivation of leader in social physical training and recreation is direly needed.</p> <p>(5) As none of planned Health Education is offered in the Elementary School, fixed hours have to be allotted and also textbooks should be compiled.</p> <p>(7) Dissemination and encouragement for the establishment of the School Health Committee are necessary.</p> <p>(8) It is desirable to cultivate expert teachers and also arrange for reeducation of all teachers.</p> <p>In the Upper Secondary Schools, owing to the fact that 38 out of 85 units are of required</p>

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
<p>(2) With the enforcement of the textbook authorization system, the preparation and publication of textbooks were made free to the public and they were left free competition with the textbook exhibition held at various parts of the country. It was the head of the school in the case of the national or private school, and the Board of Education in the case of the public schools to decide which textbooks they adopted. (See Chapter I—E)</p> <p>Item 4. Morals and Ethics</p> <p>Immediately after the end of War the morals was abolished and the civic education was conducted. In 1947 this was taken place of by the Social Studies which aimed to let pupils understand the structure and aims of a democratic society. Besides, there was established the Student Council which was designed to complete the preparation of pupils as the citizens. (See Chapter I—F)</p> <p>Item 5. History and Geography</p> <p>“Progress of Our Country” and “History of Japan” were compiled as the textbooks in Japanese History, based upon the objective fact.</p> <p>At the elementary and lower secondary levels, these subjects were included in the Social Studies and at the upper secondary level, the Courses of Study in the oriental history, occidental history and human geography were published. (See Chapter I—F)</p> <p>Item 6. Health Education and Physical Training</p> <p>(1) “Gist for Teaching Method, Physical Training Volume” was published both in 1941 and 1949.</p> <p>In 1948 Physical Training has become a regular course in the universities.</p> <p>System of the Physical Training organizations has become democratized.</p>		<p>and deaf can not be left to the free competition. So the Ministry of Education is compiling the textbooks with the teachers concerned participating. (See Chapter II—D)</p>	<p>be said sufficient in this regard.</p> <p>The authorization of textbooks is at present made by the Ministry of Education on account of the present conditions of paper supply, but this business will be transferred to the prefectural authorities in the near future. This system, three years old, is achieving very good results.</p> <p>(1) Observable is the shortage of teachers. Their cultivation is incompetent. School ground is rather narrow. There is no harmony with non-official</p>

Appendix 5. Survey on Implementation of the First
U. S. Education Mission's Report

I. Aim and Content of Education

Completed or in Progress	Planned	Difficult Points	Remarks
<p>Item 1. Aim</p> <p>(1) The Fundamental Law of Education and the School Education Law made clear that the aim of the new education was to rear up individuals as responsible builders of the State and society, respecting the worth and dignity of individuals. (See Chapter I—A)</p> <p>(2) The Ministry of Education Establishment Law of 1949 changed its function from centralizing administrative organ to advisory one. It also effected the streamlining of the internal structure of the Ministry. (See Chapter VIII—E)</p> <p>(3) “Courses of Studies” were published and the examination method was revised to put emphasis upon psychological evaluation. (See Chapter I—D)</p> <p>(4) The nation-wide achievement test was conducted in the entrance examination to the upper secondary schools. (See Chapter I—D)</p>			
<p>Item 2. Curriculum</p> <p>The curriculum was revised so that it might have roots in the interests, abilities and experiences of the pupils. The Courses of Studies were published with the cooperation of teachers, but it was not intended to require teachers to follow them faithfully but to present some suggestions for the reference of teachers. (See Chapter I—B)</p>	<p>Preparation of Courses of Study by prefectural or local boards of education is encouraged and some prefectures have already compiled their own Courses of Study. (See Chapter I-B)</p>		<p>In case where the school district system is not well established, many applicants are apt to assemble to specific schools with the result that some of them can not enter the schools. Accordingly there is given specific preparation for the achievement test.</p> <p>In some places there are already some evils noticed in this connection.</p> <p>Teachers' understanding of curriculum could be deepened and their professional ability enhanced.</p>
<p>Item 3. Textbooks</p> <p>(1) During the period from 1947 to 1949, the Ministry of Education prepared new textbooks with many teachers participating in the compilation. (See Chapter I—E)</p>		<p>For the economical reasons, the preparation of the textbooks for the blind</p>	<p>The tendency is that textbooks are being made to meet the circumstances of individual schools or locality, but it cannot</p>

Name	Purpose
Research Council on Historic Sites, Places of Scenic Beauty and Natural Monuments	in accordance with Article 2 of the same Law, and other important matters concerning the preservation of important art objects, etc. To make research and deliberation, upon inquiry of the Minister of Education, on important matters concerning the preservation of historic sites, places of scenic beauty and natural monuments.
Japanese Language Council	To make research and deliberation on matters concerning the Japanese Language and Roman letters.
Private University Council	To make research and deliberation, upon inquiry of the Minister of Education, on matters provided for in the Private School Law, concerning private universities and school juridical persons that establish private universities, and to make suggestions to the Minister of Education on important matters concerning private universities
University Chartering Council	To make research and deliberation upon inquiry of the Minister of Education, on matters concerning the chartering of universities and matters concerning the doctorate and other degrees.
Copyright Compensation Council	To make research and deliberation, upon inquiry of the Minister of Education, on the amount of compensations provided for in Article 22-(5) paragraph 2 or Article 27 paragraph 2 of the Copyright Law.
Textbook Authorization and Research Council	To examine textbooks under application for authorization, and to make research and deliberation on important matters concerning textbooks.
Text book Publication Qualification Examination Council	To examine the matters under the provisions of the Law concerning the Right of Publication, etc. of the Textbooks Compiled by the Ministry of Education (Law No. 149 of 1949).

Appendix 4. List of Councils and Committees related to the Ministry of Education

Name	Purpose
Screening Committee for Educational Personnel	To examine the eligibility of educational personnel and public service members concerned with education within the limits established by the Minister of Education in accordance with the Cabinet Order Concerning the Exclusion, Removal, Reinstatement, etc. of Members of Educational Service (Cabinet Order No. 62 of 1946)
Central Screening Committee for Educational Personnel	To make examination of the persons who have been judged ineligible to educational service in accordance with the Cabinet Order concerning the Exclusion, Removal, Reinstatement, etc. of Members of Educational Service, examination for the restoration of the right to receive pensions, allowances, etc. requested by persons who have been designated as ineligible to educational service, and examination based upon the provisions of the same Cabinet Order, Supplementary Provisions paragraph 4.
Curriculum Council	To make research and deliberation on matters concerning curriculum as well as on vocational education and vocational guidance provided by schools.
Correspondence Education Council	To make research and deliberation, upon inquiry of the Minister of Education, on the approval of correspondence courses, the recognition of superior correspondence course, the authorization of books for correspondence education, and other important matters relating to correspondence education.
Health and Physical Education Council	To make research and deliberation on matters concerning healthy sanitary and physical education in schools, lunch program, and sports and athletics.
Student Welfare Council	To make research and deliberation on matters concerning scholarship for, and welfare and relief, of students.
Educational Personnel Certification, etc. Council	To make research and deliberation on matters concerning certification and training system for educational personnel, and to take charge of business concerning qualifying examination for teachers.
Science Encouragement Council	To make research and deliberation on matters concerning the encouragement and diffusion of science.
Geodesic Council	To make deliberation on matters concerning geodesy and geodesic survey programs of national government agencies.
Social Education Council	To make research and deliberation on matters concerning education for citizenship, youth education, women's education, laborers' education and other forms of social education in general.
National Treasures Preservation Council	To make research and deliberation upon inquiry of the Minister of Education on matters provided for in the National Treasures Preservation Law (Law No. 17 of 1929) and other important matters concerning the preservation of national treasures.
Important Art Objects Research Council	To make research and deliberation, upon inquiry of the Minister of Education, on matters concerning the approval of the expert and transfer of important art objects, etc. to be given in accordance with Article 1 of the Law concerning the Preservation of Important Objects of Art, etc. (Law No. 43 of 1933), and the recognition and its cancellation to be made

a debt or stand security or dissolve itself, it must obtain the consent of the representative of devotees and the approval of the superintendent. Its important immovables must be registered, and the building for religious service and other properties registered within the premises of this building cannot be attached on account of debt under the private statute. Neither income tax nor corporation tax is imposed on the religious corporation. In cases where a religious corporation violated the provisions of laws and orders and trespassed upon public welfare the court may order its dissolution. There are also penal provisions for the superintendents and the liquidator etc. to be applicable to certain cases.

13. Others

Imperial Ordinance concerning the Foreign Employes of National Comprehensive Universities, Government Universities, Higher Normal Schools and other Schools under Direct Control of Ministry of Education (Imperial Ordinance No. 93 of 1893)

Regulations concerning Researchers Dispatched abroad (Imperial Ordinance No. 6 of 1922)

School Personnel Commendation Regulations (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 10 of 1924)

Regulations concerning the Entrance into and Transfer to Other Schools of Pupils, Children and Graduates of Schools in Other Lands than Japan Proper (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 63 of 1943)

Ministry of Education Ordinance concerning the Special Research Students of Post-Graduate School of Research course of Universities (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 74 of 1943)

Ministry of Education Ordinance concerning Establishment and Supervision of Juridical Persons under Jurisdiction of Minister of Education (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 19 of 1936)

Regulations concerning Handling of Grants in Aid for Fundamental Scientific Research. etc.
(Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 32 of 1949)

This Ministerial Ordinance provides for as to when the Grants in aid for Fundamental Scientific Research, Grants in Aid for Applied Scientific Research and Grants in Aid for Cultural Scientific Research should be issued, issuing procedure, reporting to the Minister of Education on the researches conducted with these grants, cancellation of the issuance, order for their return, etc.

However, the provisions of the Ministerial Ordinance are too weak for aiding the scientific researches of our country carried on with extremely poor facilities and materials. It is necessary, therefore, that the subsidization of researches should be strongly promoted by the enactment of a Law.

Copyright Law No. 39 of 1899)

Ordinance concerning Enforcement of Copyright Law (Imperial Ordinance No. 190 of 1935)

Enforcement Regulations of Copyright Law (Ministry for Home Affairs Ordinance No. 18 of 1939)

These provide for the contents, transfer, term of validity, extinction, registration, etc. concerning copyright, as well as the establishment of publication right, term of validity, extinction, transfer, mortgage, registration, duties of the person with publication right, compensation for the violation of copyright, for the purpose of protecting copyright. As this Law is the one enacted in 1899, it contains not a few defective points. However, it is difficult, in view of the international nature of the copyright, to drastically revise this Law for Japan who has not yet regained her position in the international society. For this reason the provisions of this Law are not fully effective.

Besides, concerning copyright there is the "Law relating to Intermediary Business concerning Copyrights (Law No. 67 of 1939)" as well as the orders concerning the administration of copyrights owned by foreign nationals which are established in accordance with the Memorandum issued by the General Headquarters for Allied Powers, i. e., "Cabinet Order concerning Registration and Protection of Copyrights Transferred to Foreigners (Cabinet Order No. 272 of 1949)" and "Ministry for Home Affairs Ordinance relating to Investigation of use of Copyright of an Allied National (Ministry of Home Affairs Ordinance No. 7 of 1942)

Cultural Properties Protection Law (Law No. 214 of 1950)

This Law provides for the establishment of the Cultural Properties Protection Commission as an external organ of the Ministry of Education in order to preserve such cultural properties as building, picture, sculpture, object of applied arts, play, historic site, place of scenic beauty, natural monument, etc. and the utilization thereof, as well as the organization of the Commission, appointment and dismissal of the members of the Commission, their pay, meeting Secretariat of the Commission, Cultural Property Special Council and National Museum research institutes, which are the organs attached to the Commission. There are also such provisions as the designation, custody, protection, exhibition and survey of important cultural properties or national treasures, unearthing of buried cultural properties, assistance to and opening to the public of intangible cultural properties, designation, custody and protection of historic sites, places of scenic beauty and natural monument and granting of subsidy, bearing of expenses and compensation against damage concerning cultural properties by the State or the local public body, etc. (This Law is going to come into force as from August 30, 1950)

Religions Corporation Ordinance (Imperial Ordinance No. 719 of 1945)

Enforcement Regulations of Religious Corporation Ordinance (Ministries of Justice and Education Ordinance No. 1 of 1947)

Under these ordinances Shinto Sects, Buddhist sects, Christian orders and orders of other religions as well as Shinto shrines, temples and churches, may form juridical persons. These juridical persons are called religious corporations. In accordance with this Ordinance, those who intend to establish religious corporations are required to prepare their regulations and to make registration at their locality. The religious corporation must have a superintendent, and the religious corporation organized by shrine, temple or church must have the representative of devotees. In cases where the religious corporation organized by shrine, temple, or church intends to amend its regulations, dispose of its immovable property or treasures, contract

council which is an advisory organ to the chief of the library, free admission, national subsidy to be granted to those on and above the fixed standards and other items. Lastly, with regard to private libraries, there are provisions concerning the notification of establishment to be made in advance, prohibition of official interference and grant of subsidy, official aid in procuring materials, admission fee, etc.

11. Educational Finance

Law Concerning Treasury's Subsidy for Vocational Education Expenses (Law No. 9 of 1914)
Enforcement Regulations for Law Concerning Treasury's Subsidy for Vocational Education Expenses (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 13 of 1914)

These are the provisions established in order to make the National Treasury defray the amount determined by budget and issue subsidy to public vocational school every year for the purpose of encouraging vocational education.

Although half the amount of vocational education expenses have formerly been borne by the National Treasury in accordance with the Law for National Treasury's Share of Compulsory Education Expenses (Law No. 22 of 1940), from 1950 fiscal year the educational expenses are to be included in the local finance equalization grant; in accordance with the Law concerning Local Finance Equalization Grant (Law No. 211 of 1951), to be granted to the local public bodies the financial demand of which is larger than its income so that the local finance be equalized. In accordance with this Law, however, the State may not restrict the use of the grant, therefore there is strong possibility of its being grabbed by the civil engineering, health and sanitation, industry and police groups in the course of its actual use, as these groups surpass the educational group in political tactics. In that case, it becomes difficult to secure the proper level of education which may bring about the failure in securing equal opportunities of receiving education, increase of abuses caused from reliance upon subscriptions and the delay in payment or nonpayment of salaries for educational personnel.

In order to get rid of such defects, it is definitely necessary to set up some kind of legal measure to insure such allocation of general equalization grant as guarantees the standard compulsory education expenses calculated in accordance with some established criterion and to make its defrayal the duty of each prefecture and each city, town or village.

12. Science and Culture

Law for Science Council of Japan (Law No. 121 of 1948)

This Law establishes the Science Council of Japan under the jurisdiction of the Prime Minister and makes its expenses borne by the National Treasury, with a view to promoting and developing science in the capacity of a representative organ for the scientists of Japan against various circles in this country as well as abroad and to making science reflect upon and infiltrate into administration, industry and people's life. The duties of the Science Council of Japan to be performed by it independently are the deliberation on important matters concerning science and maintenance of connection among scientific researches. However it may also answer the inquiry of the Government and make recommendation to it concerning certain affairs. In addition to these, it provides for the organization of the Council, election of its members, operation of its meeting as well as particulars concerning the Academy of Japan established under this Council with a view to giving honor to the scientists who have made distinguished contribution in the field of science.

Law for Scientific and Technical Administration Commission (Law No. 253 of 1948)

According to the Law, the Scientific and Technical Administration Commission, deliberates on the measures for making scientific technique reflected in administration and the measures necessary for the coordination of scientific and technical administration among administrative organs in close cooperation with the Science Council of Japan and under the jurisdiction of the Prime Minister. Besides, the Law includes provisions concerning its organization, conference, secretariat, etc.

and ultra-nationalistic people out of the educational circle of this country. The main contents of this Order covers the posts of educational service which require screening, the method of designation to be unacceptable to educational service, disposition of those designated unacceptable, etc.

9. Research and Statistics.

Regulations for School Teacher Survey (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 6 of 1950)

School Basic Survey Regulations (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 7 of 1948)

Regulations for School Hygienic Statistical Survey (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 8 of 1948)

The School Teacher survey is conducted in order to get the basic data and materials concerning the pre-service teacher training, in-service teacher training, treatment, etc.; the School Basic Survey aims to get the basic data and materials concerning the administration of school education; and lastly the School Hygienic Statistical survey is carried out for obtaining the basic data and materials concerning the administration of school hygiene. All of these surveys are designated as the "designated statistics" by the Statistics Committee. These three Regulations provide for the items and methods of survey respectively.

10. Social Education

Social Education Law (Law No. 207 of 1949)

Enforcement Order for Social Education Law (Cabinet Order No. 280 of 1949)

Regulations concerning Authorization of Correspondence Course

(Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 36 of 1949)

These provisions were established in order to clarify the duties of the State and local public bodies concerning social education. There are items of business provided for to be handled by the local board of education and the prefectural board of education in order to encourage and promote social education by establishing and operating necessary facilities, holding workshops, preparing and distributing data and materials, and other methods. In addition to that, the social education committee may be established in the prefecture and city, town and village as an organ for providing advice to the board of education concerning social education. The Minister of education and the board of education may give guidance and advice to the organizations which are not under official control but primarily aim to perform the works related to social education, and may provide assistance in procuring necessary materials.

City, town and village and the juridical person under the Civil Code may establish a Citizens' Public Hall as the facilities for social education. The Citizens' Public Hall holds regular short courses, debates, physical training meetings, etc., prepares books and data, maintains connection among various kinds of organizations and offers its facilities for the utilization of the community people for meeting, etc. As to its operation, it is prohibited to support any profit-making enterprise, specific political party or specific candidate for the Diet member or member of another assembly, and specific religion. (The Citizens' Public Hall established by a juridical person under the Civil Code is not prohibited to support a specific religion). Furthermore, there are provisions concerning the Citizens' Public Hall as to its establishment, personnel, Chief, Advisory Council, accounting, national subsidy, supervision, etc.

Next, there are the provisions concerning the utilization of school facilities for the purpose of social education; and lastly those concerning the special treatment of postal charges for the correspondence courses related to social education which are authorized by the Minister of Education.

Library Law (Law No. 118 of 1950)

This Law was enacted with a view to round development of libraries. In this Law, the items of library service to be practised by libraries are enumerated; the professional members of library personnel are limited to librarians and assistant librarians with qualification provided for, and there are provisions concerning the cooperation among the State, Local public bodies and boards of education.

Furthermore, as to public libraries this Law provides for their establishment, kinds of personnel, library

7. School Facilities

Cabinet Order concerning the Securing of School Facilities (Cabinet Order No. 34 of 1949)
Regulations for Enforcement of Cabinet Order concerning Securing of School Facilities
(Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 5 of 1949)

In the light of the conditions of school facilities being used for other purposes than their original educational purpose to the extent it may inflict a serious influence on the effect of education, this Cabinet Order was established in accordance with the Memorandum to the Japanese Government issued by the General Headquarters for the Allied Powers on November 29, 1948, subject: On the Misuse of Government and Public School Facilities. It provides for the prevention of the misuse of school facilities and allows the execution of powerful measures for the restoration of the school facilities being misused.

Moreover, it being necessary to establish and secure the minimum standards for school facilities in order to raise the good effect of education, the School Facilities Standard Law is going to be prepared.

8. Educational Personnel

Law for Special Regulations concerning Educational Public service (Law No. 1 of 1949)
Enforcement Order of Law for Special Regulations concerning Educational Public Service (Cabinet Order No. 6 of 1949)
Enforcement Regulations of Law for Special Regulations concerning Educational Public Service (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 2 of 1949)

These provisions were established for the educational public service personnel, in view of their peculiar positions, as exception to the National Public Service Law and the Local Public Service Law, which is expected to be enacted in the near future. The characteristic of this Law is that it legally recognized the autonomy of university professors, the appointment and promotion of all educational service personnel are to be made through selection and deliberation and not through competitive examination, and that it includes special regulations concerning the training, additional part-time service, etc. of educational personnel.

Educational Personnel Certification Law (Law No. 147 of 1949)
Enforcement Order for Educational Personnel Certification Law (Cabinet Order No. 338 of 1949)
Enforcement Regulations of Educational Personnel Certification Law (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 38 of 1949)
Law Concerning Enforcement of Educational Personnel Certification Law (Law No. 148 of 1949)
Enforcement Regulations of Law Concerning Enforcement of Educational Personnel Certification Law (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 39 of 1949)

All the provisions concerning the qualifications for teachers which had been established or abolished by order were compiled in the form of laws. Under these new Laws the duties of teachers are regarded to be professional work, which requires a considerably high professional knowledge. Besides, convenience for obtaining the qualifications for teachers is taken into consideration and is made as easily obtainable as possible as well as reasonably administered. Furthermore, the consideration is given to the positions of the teachers who have been in actual service, and the conversion of the qualifications under the former ordinances to the new qualifications is provided for and in-service teacher training is thought much of.

Cabinet Order concerning the Exclusion, Removal Reinstatement, etc. of Members of Educational Service (Cabinet Order No. 62 of 1947)
Enforcement Regulations of Cabinet Order concerning Exclusion, Removal, Reinstatement etc. of Members of Educational Service (Ministries of Education, Foreign Affairs, Justice, Communications, Welfare, Home Affairs, Finance, Transportation and Agriculture and Forestry Ordinance No. 1 of 1947)

This is a Cabinet Order based upon the Potsdam Declaration issued in accordance with the Memorandum from the General Headquarters for the Allied Powers for the purpose of purging all the militaristic

Cabinet Order for Enforcement of Law concerning Right of Publication, etc. of Textbooks compiled by Ministry of Education (Cabinet Order No. 271 of 1949)

Regulations for Accounting of Manufacturing Cost of Textbooks compiled by Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 26 of 1949)

Regulations for Computation of Charge for Publication of Textbooks compiled by Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 27 of 1949)

Regulations for Application for Textbooks Publication Qualification Examination (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 28 of 1949)

According to this Law, the Minister of Education should inquire through the Textbook Publication Qualification Council into the qualifications of those who intend to obtain the publication right of textbooks compiled by the Ministry of Education. The publication right should be set up with the person who makes the lowest bid within the limits of the manufacturing cost previously estimated by the Minister of Education at the competitive bidding made among those publishers who had passed the examination of the Council. Furthermore, there are provisions concerning the approval of transfer of the publication right, lapse of the publication right due to slack business, capacity, and credit of the right holder, etc.

Regulations for Authorization of Textbooks (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 4 of 1948)

This Ministerial Ordinance provides for the procedure for, term of validity, annulment, etc. of textbook authorization to be conducted by the Minister of Education in compliance with the reply to the inquiry submitted by the Textbook Authorization and Research Council. Moreover, as regards the procedure for, and term of validity, annulment, etc. of, the authorization of guide-books for correspondence education, there are the Regulations for Authorization of Guide-books for Correspondence Courses of New Lower and Upper Secondary Schools (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 28 of 1947).

Roles for Evaluating Educational Films (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 2 of 1947)

In accordance with this Law the Minister of Education should have the Educational Films Evaluation Council evaluate the films, lantern slides, kamishibai (paper show) which have educational value and make a note of their grades in quality as to what kinds of audience they are suited to, to what ages and grades in school, and extent of their utilization in educational experience, at the same list them in the catalog and send it to schools, the quarters concerned with social education, makers, etc.

6. Private Schools.

Private School (Law No. 270 of 1949)

Enforcement Regulations of Private School Law (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 12 of 1950)

School Juridical Person Registration Order (Cabinet Order No. 31 of 1950)

This Law was enacted with a view to round development of private schools by respecting the independence of private schools and enhancing their public utility. In this Law; the competent authority for private universities is the Minister of Education and that for schools of and below upper secondary school level is the prefectural governor, the items of supervision are reduced to the minimum degree, and, moreover, the opinion of the Council must be heard in conducting such supervision. The establisher of a private school must be the school juridical person, a special juridical person with a character much suited to educational purpose and with a stronger foundation than general public benefit juridical person (under the Civil Code). The establishment, administration and dissolution of the school juridical person are also provided for. Further-more there is a provision included therein that the school juridical person may conduct a profit-making enterprise, unless it is objectionable for educational purpose, in order to raise funds for the management of the private school which it establishes, as well as the provisions concerning the assistance to the school juridical person by means of subsidies, loans, etc. supplied by the State and local public bodias.

and teaching hours, textbooks, school organization, school physical examination, disciplinary punishment for students, pupils and children and its limits, supervision over schools, matters concerning miscellaneous schools were prescribed. These are also some temporary provisions for the transitional period of conversion from the old system to the new one.

Besides, as for the minimum standards for curriculum and school organization, it is necessary to prescribe them by independent laws separately. Such laws are now being prepared.

Ordinance concerning School Physicians and Kindergarten Physicians (Imperial Ordinance No. 9 of 1929)

Regulations concerning Duties of School Physicians (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 3 of 1932)

Ordinance concerning School Dentists and Kindergarten Dentists (Imperial Ordinance No. 144 of 1931)

Regulations concerning Duties of School Dentists (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 2 of 1932)

Ordinance Pertaining to Teachers' Sanatorium (Imperial Ordinance No. 886 of 1940)

Regulations concerning Prevention of School Infectious Diseases

(Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 18 of 1938)

All of these are the provisions related to the health program of schools. However, as they are the provisions established in the days of the Imperial Constitution before the enforcement of the School Education Law, it is dubious whether they are still effective today. Therefore, it is desired for the health and sanitation program of the school to enact a new and comprehensive law.

4. Scholarship

Japan Scholarship Society Law (Law No. 30 of 1944)

Enforcement Ordinance for Japan Scholarship Society Law (Imperial Ordinance No. 271 of 1944)

These provisions were enacted in order to loan school expenses and to provide other kinds of assistance for promising students who find it difficult to continue their study for financial reasons. For this purpose, this Law provides for establishment of the Japan Scholarship Society, a juridical person, and its particulars such as personnel, projects, accounts, supervision, subsidy. It is necessary, however, to enact a new and more powerful legislation on this concern which fully meets the financial conditions of students today.

5. Textbooks

Law of Provisionary Measures concerning Publication of Textbooks (Law No. 132 of 1948)

Regulations for Enforcement of Law of Provisionary Measures concerning Publication of Textbooks (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 15 of 1948)

These Law and Ordinance were established in order to facilitate the attainment of the object of school education by adjusting the demand and supply of textbooks, making their publication speedy and reliable and maintaining a reasonable price there of under the unfavorable economic conditions of this day. It is provided in this Law that the Minister of Education prepares the catalog of textbooks every year in accordance with the reports of the publishers and distributes it to all schools through prefectural boards of education. The prefectural boards of education hold the textbook exhibition every year and notify the Minister of Education of the kind and number of copies demanded. The Minister of Education then indicates the number of copies to be issued to the publishers in accordance with the amount thus demanded. The publishers are obligated to supply the textbooks by the fixed time without fail, and are to assume responsibility so far as their supply is concerned. With regard to their fixed price, they must obtain the approval of the Minister of Education.

Law concerning Right of Publication, etc. of Textbooks Compiled by Ministry of Education (Law No. 149 of 1949)

Cabinet Order concerning Enforcement of Board of Education Law (Cabinet Order No. 239 of 1948)

Regulations for Enforcement of Education Law (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 16 of 1948)

These provisions govern establishment of the board of education in each prefecture as well as in city, town and village which is composed of the members elected by the inhabitants of the community concerned with a view to executing educational administration based upon the equitable will of the people and befitting actual local conditions so that education should be responsible directly to the entire people of the nation, and also provide for its organization including membership, meeting, superintendent of education, secretariat, and the duties and powers thereof.

2. Constitution for Education

Fundamental Law of Education (Law No. 25 of 1947)

This Law declares the aim of education and the principles for its realization in order to clarify the aim of education in accordance with the Constitution of Japan, and establish the foundation of education for new Japan, at the same time it provides for the equal opportunities of receiving education, spread and thorough execution of compulsory education, co-education, intrinsic nature of school and teacher, dissemination and encouragement of social education, political education, religious education, proper educational administration, etc.

3. School Education

School Education Law (Law No. 26 of 1947)

Enforcement Regulations of School Education Law (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 11 of 1947)

Cabinet Order concerning Obligation of Guardians to send their Children to Lower Secondary School and Obligation of Protectors to send their blind or deaf Children to Schools for the Blind or the Deaf and Obligation of the Prefectures to Establish Schools for the Blind or the Deaf (Cabinet Order No. 79 of 1948)

Cabinet Order concerning the Obligation of Protectors to send their blind or deaf Children to Schools for the Blind or the Deaf (Cabinet Order No. 42 of 1950)

Establishment Standards for Upper Secondary School (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 1 of 1949)

Regulations for Lower Secondary Corespondence Education
(Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 25 of 1947)

Regulations for Upper Secondary Correspondence Education (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 5 of 1948)

Regulations Concerning School Physical Examination (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 7 of 1949)

Formerly the provisions concerning schools were established by Imperial ordinances. But these Imperial ordinances were all abolished by the enforcement of this Law. Consequently, those provisions came to be established by laws enacted by the Diet. The School Education Law established the new 6-3-3-4 school system, of single track type composed of elementary school, lower secondary school, upper secondary school and university, in place of the former double track type one. In this way this Law advanced a step with the policy of equal opportunities for receiving education. It was also for the security of equal opportunities for education, that the execution of the obligation of sending children to elementary and lower secondary schools was provided for that correspondence education, part-time course and night course were authorized and that education of the blind, the deaf and the otherwise handicapped was established. Besides, the aim and objective to be attained by the school of each grade were clearly set up, and the establishment of schools, personnels to be assigned in the schools, subject areas of schools, contents of lessons, number of teaching days

Regulations for a National Garden for Nature Study (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 29 1949)

This Ministerial Ordinance provides for the object, projects, chief, board of trustees, etc. of the National Garden for Nature Study.

Regulations for Library Personnel Training Institute (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 20 of 1949)

This Ministerial Ordinance provides for the object, length of course, qualifications for entrance, subjects, number of teaching days, etc. of the Library Personnel Training Institute.

Curriculum Council Order (Cabinet Order No. 86 of 1950)

Correspondence Education Council Order (Cabinet Order No. 304 of 1949)

Health and Physical Education Council Order (Cabinet Order No. 243 of 1949)

Student Welfare Council Order, (Cabinet Order No. 244 of 1949)

Teacher Certification Council Order (Cabinet Order No. 87 of 1950)

Science Encouragement Council Order (Cabinet Order No. 246 of 1949)

Geodetic Council Order (Cabinet Order No. 247 of 1949)

Social Education Council Order (Cabinet Order No. 97 of 1949)

Regulation Governing the Organization of National Treasures Preservation Society (Imperial Ordinance No. 211 of 1929)

Important Art Objects Research Council Order (Cabinet order No. 251 of 1949)

Research Council on Historic Sites, Places of Scenic Beauty and Natural Monuments Order (Cabinet Order No. 252 of 1949)

Japanese Language Council Order (Cabinet Order No. 85 of 1950)

Regulations governing Organization of University Chartering Committee (Cabinet Order No. 11 of 1948)

Regulation governing Organization of Copyright Investigation Council (Imperial Ordinance No. 191 of 1935)

Textbook Authorization and Research Council Order (Cabinet Order No. 140 of 1950)

These provisions prescribe the functions, organization, way of operating meetings, etc. with regard to the respective council, etc. The provisions asterisked will be abolished on and after August 30, 1950, when the Cultural Properties protection Law comes into force.)

Regulations for the fixed Number of Personnel in the Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 20 of 1950)

This Ministerial Ordinance provides for the fixed number of the personnel of the Ministry of Education assigned to the bureaus and sections, and the organs under the jurisdictions, of the Ministry (excluding national schools.

National School Establishment Law (Law No. 150 of 1949)

Enforcement Regulations of the National School Establishment Law (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 23 of 1949)

These Law and Ministerial Ordinance provide for establishment of seventy national universities, their names, locations, faculties, attached research institutes and laboratories, attached research facilities, attached libraries, attached schools etc.; provide for establishment of three national upper secondary schools or radio waves and their names and locations, provide for establishment of National School for Education of the Blind and National School for Education of the Deaf and their locations and objects as well as the schools attached to them; and at the same time provide for the fixed number of personnel assigned in each national school and internal organization of the national schools, etc.

(2) Local Educational Administration Organization

Board of Education Law (Law No. 170 of 1948)

Appendix 3.

Summary of Important Laws and Orders Concerning
Education

(July 31, 1950)

Contents

1. Organization for Educational Administration	8. Educational Personnel
2. Constitution for Education	9. Research and Statistics
3. School Education	10. Research and Statistics
4. Scholarship	11. Educational Finance
5. Textbooks	12. Science and Culture
6. Private Schools	13. Others
7. School Facilities	

1. Organization for Educational Administration

(1) Contral Educational Administration Organization

Ministry of Education Establishment Law (Law No. 146 of 1949)

This Law provides for the scope of the functions and the powers of the Ministry of Education as well as the organization there of (Minister's Secretariat, five bureaus, national schools and other agencies and nineteen councils under its jurisdiction).

Ministry of Education Organization Regulations (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 21 of 1949)

This Ministerial Ordinance provides for the organization of the sections of the Ministry of Education (36 sections) and the duties of each section.

Cabinet Order concerning the Boards of Trustees of Organs under Jurisdiction of Ministry of Education (Cabinet Order No. 274 of 1949)

This Cabinet Order provides for the functions, organization, operation of meeting of the board of trustees set up in the National Educational Research Institute, National Museum, National Science Museum, Institute of Statistical Mathematics and the National Research Institute for Genetics.

Regulations governing Organization of Organs under Jurisdiction of Ministry of Education (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 30 of 1949).

This Ministerial Ordinance provides for the internal organization of the National Educational Research Institute, National Science Museum, International Latitude Observatory, Institute of Statistical Mathematics and National Research Institute of Genetics.

National Museum Organization Regulations (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 2 of 1950)

This Ministerial Ordinance provides for the internal organization of the National Museum.

Law for Establishment of National Language Research Institute (Law No. 254 of 1948)

Regulations concerning the Operation of the Board of Trustees of the National Language Research Institute (Ministry of Education Ordinance No. 8 of 1949)

This Law and Ministerial Ordinance provide for the object, projects, operation, chief, board of trustees, etc. of the National Language Research Institute.

Japan Art Academy Order (Cabinet Order No. 281 of 1949)

This Cabinet Order provides for the internal operation, etc. of the Japan Art Academy, organ established for the purpose of giving honor to the artists who have made distinguished contribution in the fields of art.

(11) Re. Ministry of Telecommunications

a. Personnel Training Schools

The length of course is one year.

b. Nurse Training Schools of Hospitals attached to the Ministry of Telecommunications.

The length of the course is two years, just as those under the Ministry of Postal Services.

(12) Others

In addition to these, there are Second Fisheries Institutes (4 year course) for the personnel of the Fisheries Agency; Mint Engineers' Institute of the Mint Agency; Training Institute of the Printing Agency; Meteorological Technicians' Training Institute of the Central Meteorological Observatory; Maritime Safety Academy of the Maritime Safety Agency.

Moreover, as the educational institutions attached to the House of Representatives and the House of Councillors, there is a Shorthand Writers' Training School under the respective Houses.

length of course varies between six months and one year.

(5) Re Tax Administration Agency

Tax Training Institute

This Institute is established as an organ for training both newly employed taxation officials and leading staff. It consists of the general course and the higher course, the length of which is one year with the former and six months with the latter.

(6) Re. Ministry of welfare

- a. Nurse Training Institutes attached to National Hospitals and Midwife Training Institutes attached to National Sanatoria.

These are the organs for training nurses and midwives, the length of which is two years respectively.

- b. National Juvenile Home for Education and Training and National Homes for the Blind (Komyo-Ryo)

The former is the educational and protective institution for the juvenile handicapped and the latter is the organ for guidance and training of those who have lost their eyesight. Both of them have the twofold characters as twofold of welfare and educational facilities.

- c. National Institute of Public Health

The institution for training those engaged in the public health program.

(7) Re. Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry.

There are Tea Technicians' Training Institutes, Agricultural Home Industry Guidance Institutes, Horsemen Training Institutes' etc. for the purpose of training respective kinds of technicians in the fields of agriculture and forestry. The length of course is not regular, but varies according to the purpose of their establishment and the circumstances of the locality.

(8) Re. Ministry of Transportation.

- a. Seamen Training Schools and Navigation Training Establishment.

The former is the training organ for seamen and the latter for marine engineers.

- b. Maritime Technical School

This is the organ to train those who have completed the course of the Navigation Training Establishment, as leading technicians through higher education. Its length of course is two years with the regular course and between six months and one year with the special training course and the research course.

- c. Meteorological Technician Training Institute

This is the organ for training technicians in the field of meteorology. Although the regular course (3 years) is closed at present, the special course (1 year) and the advanced training course (4 months) are open.

(9) Re. National Railways

- a. Railway Workers' Training Institute and Personnel Training Institute

The former primarily aims to train engineers and the latter conductors. Besides, there is a Technician Training Institute for technical personnel. All these institutes have 3 months' regular course, 6 months' regular course, 6 months' advance course and 1 year graduate course.

(10) Re. Ministry of Postal Charges

- a. Personnel Training Schools

The length of course is one year.

- b. Nurse Training Schools of the Hospitals attached to the Ministry of Postal Services.

The length of course is two years.

Appendix 2. Educational Organs outside the Jurisdiction of the Ministry of Education

(Police; Attorney-General's Office; Supreme Court; Ministry of Foreign Affairs, Tax Administration Agency, Ministry of Welfare; Ministry of Agriculture and Forestry; Ministry of Transportation; Japan National Railways; Ministry of Postal Services; Ministry of Telecommunications, etc.)

Most of the educational organs under the jurisdiction of other agencies than the Ministry of Education, are characteristic ally of personnel training organs established by government and public agencies primarily for the special purpose of attaining its administrative objectives. Education given at such organs being the technical education with special objective based upon the culture accomplished by school education, their length of the period of courses is short with a very few exceptions. Below is given the brief explanation of such organs itemized according to the jurisdiction over them;

(1) Re. Police

a. Police College:

This is the highest organ with one-year course for training the personnel of National Rural Police and of the Autonomy Agency Police.

b. Regional Police Schools.

c. Prefectural Police Schools and Fire Defence Training Institute.

Those who have completed the Prefectural Police Schools and the Fire Defence Training Institute enter the Regional Police Schools, the length of which course is six months.

(2) Re. Attorney-General's Office:

a. Research and Training Institute of the Attorney-General's Office.

The re-education organ with a course covering the period between six months and one year for training of staff of the Attorney-General's Office.

b. Central and Local Research and Training Institutes for Correction and Rehabilitation Officials.

The re-education organ with six months' course established for the training of the leading staff of the Prisons, Reformatories, Juvenile Classification Offices and Juvenile Detention Homes.

c. Jailors' Training Institute.

Established at each jail for the purpose of training newly appointed jailors. The length of training generally runs for two months.

d. Public Procurators' Training Institute.

The re-education organ for public procurators established with a view to stabilizing public procurators' front.

(3) Re. Supreme Court

Juridical Research and Training Institute

The educational organ for those qualified to become judges, public procurators, or lawyers in future. Its course covers two years in which they make necessary research and receive training required for their profession.

(4) Re. Ministry of Foreign Affairs

Research and Training Institute of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs

This is the educational organ for the newly appointed diplomatists and the clerks of the Ministry of Foreign Affairs. It is divided into four departments according to category of respective duties, and its

Table 32

Amount per Pupil of Total Educational Expense classified according to the Type of Schools

(Surveyed by Elementary & Secondary Education Bureau)

	Elementary School		Middle School		Girls' High School		Vocational School		School for the Blind & for Deaf		Multiplying ratio
1 9 3 5	30	14	6,251	81	16,345	47	15,030	53	21,326	37	207,4
1 9 3 6	31	75	6,270	62	16,396	43	14,107	49	20,636	52	197,5
1 9 3 7	31	67	5,605	52	14,525	24	13,392	88	19,100	66	180,4
1 9 3 8	30	66	4,823	12	12,146	55	11,426	65	17,017	13	167,5
1 9 3 9	30	53	4,292	37	10,878	72	9,915	76	16,557	17	140,6
1 9 4 0	35	10	4,250	72	10,501	24	8,990	55	16,051	41	121,1
1 9 4 1	Figures cannot be shown in these vacant columns owing to the deficiency in data.										119,6
											116,3
											109,6
											97,8
											66,6
1 9 4 6	(Lower Sec. School)		(Upper Sec. School)								10,9
1 9 4 7	36	4,625	86	10,311					62	27,962	4.0
1 9 4 8	65	3,844	57	9,931	63	15,487			71	22,655	1.4
	2,746	7,093		11,062					16,182		1.0

In each column, figures in the left show the amount of expenses per pupil for the school respective years, and figures in the right show the amount converted to the present rate. Figures cannot be shown in the vacant column, owing to the deficiency in data. Multiplying ratio accord with the index number of retail price defined by Bank of Japan.

Table 29

Annual List of Local Educational Expenditure by Local Public Body

(Unit ¥ 1,000) Elementary & Secondary Education Bureau

	Annual Expenditure of Prefectures		Annual Expenditure of Cities		Annual Expenditure of Towns and Villages		Total Amount of Annual Expenditure of Local Government	
	Total Expenditure	Educational Expense	%	Total Expenditure	Educational Expense	%	Total Expenditure	%
1 9 3 5	857,281	124,671	14.5	959,693	119,751	12.5	2,377,351	40.1
1 9 3 6	1,013,024	130,147	12.8	1,403,618	139,457	9.9	2,987,280	41.2
1 9 3 7	827,970	136,564	16.5	927,737	140,486	15.1	2,322,567	41.1
1 9 3 8	912,543	141,157	15.5	929,781	143,557	15.4	2,430,333	39.6
1 9 3 9	1,055,526	155,084	14.7	986,165	158,183	16.0	2,666,620	37.1
1 9 4 0	1,461,441	368,248	25.2	1,100,539	105,297	9.6	3,123,325	22.4
1 9 4 1	1,659,170	401,549	24.2	1,202,879	133,593	11.1	3,502,639	27.1
1 9 4 2	1,746,538	432,418	24.8	1,338,390	142,440	10.6	3,798,879	28.2
1 9 4 3	3,632,907	592,100	22.5	1,358,781	130,258	9.6	471,414	19.1
1 9 4 4	2,362,633	915,194	26.0	1,183,750	127,826	10.8	4,231,574	24.9
1 9 4 5	6,679,789	1,428,507	21.4	2,684,575	290,109	10.8	10,560,348	15.0
1 9 4 6	19,183,844	6,420,987	33.5	5,355,914	830,336	15.5	28,957,052	18.6
1 9 4 7	63,429,760	18,617,519	29.4	17,926,474	2,452,093	13.7	101,630,000	28.5
1 9 4 8	139,181,269	44,736,582	32.1	52,852,395	8,987,620	17.0	250,751,000	32.4
1 9 4 9	203,671,158	65,281,307	32.1	161,298,645	27,754,171	17.2	364,969,803	—
1 9 5 0							490,995,000	20.9

Mates: As the amounts for the fiscal years 1949-50, and 1950-51 are only estimates, they can not be divided into the respective columns of prefectures, cities, towns & villages.

Figures for the fiscal year 1949-50 marked with asterisk * show the total amount of cities, towns and villages.

Table 26 Number of Members of Prefectural Board of Education by Sex and by Age

As of July 1, 1950
Research & Publication Bureau

Age							Total
Sex	20~30	31~40	41~50	51~60	More than 61	Unknown	
Male	4	34	81	69	47	2	237
Female	1	2	13	16	5	0	37
Total	5	36	94	85	52	2	274

Remarks: This list excludes those who are elected by and from the assembly.

Table 27
Number of Members of Prefectural Board of Education by Occupation

As of July 1, 1950
Research & Publications Bureau

Occupation	Teacher	Director of Com-pany	Liberal Profes-sion	Public Service	Agricul-ture	Staff of Organi-zation	Industry	Others	Unem-ployed	Total
Actual number	88	37	32	26	22	14	9	5	41	274
Percentage	32.1	13.5	11.7	9.5	8.0	5.1	3.3	1.8	15.0	100%

Remarks: This list excludes those who are elected by and from the assembly. Vacancy : 2

Table 28
Annual List of Educational Expenditure in Relation to the National Budget

(Unit ¥ 1,000) Elementary & Secondary Education Bureau

	Total National Budget	(A) Budget of Education Ministry	%	(B) School under direct control	B A	Subsidy (C) for Local Government	C A	Subsidy (D) for Compul-sory Educa-tion Expense (included in C)	D A	(E) Others	E A
1935	2,206,477	151,099	6.8	34,252	22.7	164,772	69.3	85,000	81.1	12,074	8.0
1936	2,282,175	142,573	6.2	34,762	24.4	100,854	70.7	85,000	84.3	6,957	4.9
1937	2,709,000	145,642	5.4	35,771	24.6	97,438	66.9	85,000	87.2	12,433	8.5
1938	3,288,000	145,942	4.4	40,245	27.6	97,534	66.8	85,000	87.1	8,163	5.6
1939	4,493,833	161,326	3.6	46,139	25.6	100,686	62.4	85,000	84.1	14,501	9.0
1940	5,860,213	194,954	3.3	46,868	24.1	117,793	60.4	99,937	84.8	30,293	15.5
1941	8,133,891	269,720	3.3	59,778	22.2	176,006	65.2	145,615	82.7	33,936	12.6
1942	8,276,475	321,497	3.9	75,710	23.5	207,025	64.4	169,758	82.0	38,762	12.1
1943	12,551,813	385,713	3.1	117,704	30.5	232,340	60.3	208,460	89.7	35,619	9.2
1944	19,871,947	588,528	3.0	155,640	26.5	293,196	49.8	245,239	83.6	139,092	23.7
1945	21,496,189	966,212	4.5	193,390	20.0	691,156	71.5	524,717	75.9	81,665	8.5
1946	136,792,904	2,421,677	1.8	711,021	29.4	1,557,730	64.3	1,305,056	83.8	152,926	6.3
1947	205,841,065	9,906,982	4.8	2,967,659	30.0	6,442,987	65.0	5,002,072	77.6	496,336	5.0
1948	461,974,067	29,558,410	6.4	6,683,596	22.6	21,057,009	71.2	14,522,351	69.0	1,817,305	6.2
1949	741,313,625	38,521,394	5.2	9,705,898	25.2	26,249,292	68.1	22,470,351	85.6	2,566,204	6.7
1950	661,406,090	46,493,044	7.0	11,961,874	25.7	31,055,625	66.8			3,475,545	7.5

Figures for 1950 include the amount carried into the budget of Equalization Fund for Local Finance.

Name of Prefecture	Name of Department and Section	Number of Personnel			
		Director and Technician	Non-regular Personnel	Employee	Total
Yamaguchi-Ken	Research Office ; General Affairs; Administration; Guidance ; Social Education	105	21	45	171
Tokushima-Ken	Secretaries' Office ; Research Office ; General Affaire ; Administration ; Facilities ; Guidance ; Social Education	121	16	38	175
Kagawa-Ken	General Affairs ; School Administration ; School Guidance ; Social Education ; Research	123	8	52	183
Ehime-Ken	General Affairs ; Personnel ; Research ; School Education ; Social Education	111	8	97	216
Kochi-Ken	General Affairs ; Teaching Affairs ; Guidance ; Research ; Social Education	103	11	80	194
Fukuoka-Ken	Secretaries' Office ; Finance ; School Porsonnel ; Social Education; Reseach and Statistics; Guidance; Health ; Facilities	166	213	63	442
Saga-Ken	General Affairs ; Research ; Guidance ; School affairs ; Social Education ; Physical and Health	86	52	56	194
Nagasaki-Ken	General Affairs; Administration; School Education; Health Education ; Social Education ; Research Office	85	64	56	205
Kumamoto-Ken	Board Office ; General Affairs ; Facilities ; Research ; School Affairs ; Social Education ; Physical and Health	140	25	57	222
Oita-Ken	Superintendent's Office ; General Affairs ; Research and Statistics ; School Education ; Social Education ; Physical and Health	90	40	9	139
Miyazaki-Ken	Clerks' Office ; Educational Administration ; School Education ; Social Education	105	12	33	150
Kagoshima-Ken	Superintendent's Office ; General Affairs ; School Education ; Guidance ; Social Education ; Physical and Health	130	21	60	211
Total		5,369	1,997	3,065	10,431

- Remarke ;
- 1) Names in the column of "Names of Department and Section" are those of sections unless they are Specifically designated these of departments or of offices.
 - 2) "Personnel" Includes full-time personnel, part time personnel, and non-regular personnel without pay.
 - 3) "Number of Personnel" includes not only that of departments or sections of the secretariat but also that of branch offices, libraries, institutions, etc.
 - 4) "Directors and Technicians" includes social education directors and teacher consultants.
 - 5) In 11 prefectures where the department system is not adopted, a vicesuper-intendent system is instituted However, there are four prefectures where the post of vice-superintendent is still vacant.
 - 6) The number of personnel of Hokkai-do, Fukuoka-ken, and Chiba-ken depends upon former data because the new date are not available.

Toyama-Ken	Secretaries' Office; General Affairs; School Education; Social Education	112	2	53	167
Ishikawa-Ken	General Affairs; School Education; Social Education	77	12	28	117
Fukui-Ken	General Affairs; School Education; Social Education; Guidance	69	11	31	111
Yamanashi-Ken	Secretaries' Office; Administration Dept (Administration and Finance; Facilities; Research) Guidance Dept (Social Education; School Education)	128	11	58	197
Nagano-Ken	Administration and Finance; School Affairs and Guidance; Culture and Welfare)	156	75	99	330
Gifu-Ken	Educational Research; General Affairs; Administration; Guidance; Social Education)	85	80	35	200
Shizuoka-Ken	Secretaries' Office; General Affairs; Accounting; Research & Statistics; Guidance; Culture; Physical and Health)	89	144	58	291
Aichi-Ken	Secretaries' Office; Public Relation Office; School Education Dept (Guidance; School Affairs; Welfare) Social Education Dept. (Social Education; Culture) General Affairs Dept. (General Affairs; Facilities; Research & Statistics)	117	26	33	176
Mie-Ken	Secretaries' Office; General Affairs; School Education; Social Education	125	17	57	199
Shiga-Ken	Secretarial Affairs and Research; Accounting and Facilities; Educational Personnel & School Education; Social Education	50	74	17	141
Kyoto-Fu	Secretaries' Office; Administration Dept. (Educational Personnel; Research and Statistics; Facilities) Guidance Dept. (School Guidance; Health and Physical; Social Education; National Treasure Preservation)	114	64	83	261
Osaka-Fu	Secretarial Affairs; General Affairs; School Affairs; Educational Research; Facilities; Social Education; Health and Physical; Teacher Consultants' Office	158	45	180	383
Hyogo-Ken	Secretarial Affairs; Personnel; General Affairs Dept. (General Affairs; Research; Facilities) Guidance Dept. (School Guidance; Social Education; Physical and Health)	239	27	59	325
Nara-Ken	Secretaries' Office; General Affairs; School Affairs; Guidance; Social Education; Cultural Property Preservation	89	53	62	204
Wakayama-Ken	Secretaries' Office; Guidance; School Affairs; Social Education	140	33	23	196
Tottori-Ken	General Affairs; Teaching Affairs; Research and Planning; Guidance; Health Education; Social Education	25	10	67	102
Shimane-Ken	General Affairs; Research and Planning; School Affairs; Facilities; Culture; Guidance	77	43	54	174
Okayama-Ken	General Affairs; Research; School Affairs; Social Education	129	53	83	265
Hiroshima-Ken	Research Office; General Affairs; School Affairs; Guidance; Social Education	79	45	54	178

Table 25

Organization and Number of Personnel of the Prefectural Board of Education

As of July 1, 1950
(Research & Publications Bureau)

Name of Prefecture	Name of Department and Section	Number of Personnel			
		Director and Technician	Non-regular Personnel	Employee	Total
Hokkai-Do	Superintendent's Office ; Administration Dept. (General Affairs ; Educational Personnel ; Research) Guidance Dept. (Guidance ; Social Education ; Health Education)	163	20	187	370
Aomori-Ken	Superintendent's Office ; General Affairs ; School Affairs ; Social Education ; Research ; Health Education ; Guidance	183	6	92	281
Iwate-Ken	General Affairs ; School Education ; Social Education ; Health Education ; Research	158	27	73	258
Miyagi-Ken	Secretaries' Office ; General Affairs ; School Affairs ; Guidance ; Social Education ; Health Education ; Research	126	71	90	287
Akita-Ken	Secretaries' Office ; General Affairs ; School Affairs ; Guidance	81	61	46	188
Yamagata-Ken	General Affairs ; School Education ; Social Education ; School Health ; Physical ; Research	145	39	58	242
Fukushima-Ken	Administration ; Guidance ; Research ; Social Education	83	20	36	139
Ibaragi-Ken	General Affairs ; School Affairs ; Social Education ; Physical & Health ; Guidance ; Research	98	56	38	192
Tochigi-Ken	General Affairs ; Educational Personnel ; Guidance ; Social Education ; Health Education	137	44	43	224
Gumma-Ken	Superintendent's Office ; Administration and Finance ; Guidance ; Social Education ; School Health	110	16	44	170
Saitama-Ken	Secretaries' Office ; Administration Dept. (General Affairs ; Research and Statistics) Guidance Dept. (Teacher Consultants' Office) Culture and Welfare Dept (Health ; Social Education)	110	140	49	299
Chiba-Ken	Secretarial Affairs and Research ; Administration and Finance ; Guidance ; Social Education ; Health Education	110	23	69	202
Tokyo-To	General Affairs Dept. (General Affairs ; Documents ; Research ; Finance ; Facilities School Affairs Dept. (School Affairs , Personnel, Health ; School Lunch Service ; Welfare) Social Education ; Dept Social Education ; Culture ; Visual Education)	265	48	331	644
Kanagawa-Ken	Secretaries' Office ; General Affairs Dept (General Affairs and Statistics ; Educational Personnel ; Facilities) Guidance Dept (School Education ; Social Education ; Research ; School Health	54	33	31	118
Niigata-Ken	General Affairs ; Educational Personnel ; Research ; Guidance ; Social Education ; Health ; Clerks' Office)	123	77	98	298

Auxiliary Organ (A)

National Universities	(71)
National Upper Secondary Schools	(3)
National School for Education of the Blind	(1)
National School for Education of the Deaf	(1)
National Educational Research Inst	(1)
National Museum	(1)
International Latitude Observatory	(1)
Inst. of Statistical mathematics	(1)
National Research Inst. for Genetics	(1)
National Japanese Language Research Inst.	(1)

Japan Art Academy	(1)
National Science Museum	
Librarians' Training Institute	

Auxiliary Organs (B)

Screening Committee for Educational Personnel	×	National Treasures Preservation Cl.
Central Screening Committee for Educational Personnel	×	Important Art Object Research Cl.
Curriculum Council	×	Research Cl. on Historical Site Places of Scenic Beauty & national monument
Correspondence Education C.		Japanese Language Council
Health & Physical Edu. C.		Private University Council
Student Welfare C.		University Chartering Council
Educational Personnel Certification etc. C.		Copyright Compensation Cl.
Science Encouragement C.		Textbook Authorization and Research Council
Geodetic Council		Textbook Publication Qualification Examination Council
Social Education Council		

(Remarks) With the enforcement of the Cultural Properties Preservation Law (in the end of August. 1950). The Cultural Properties Preservation Committee will be established as an outer organ.

With the establishment of the Cultural Properties Preservation Committee, Cultural Properties Preservation Lection, National Museum, National Treasures Preservation Council. Important Art Object Research Council, and Research Council on Historical Sites, places of Scenic Beauty & Natural Monuments (×marks) will be respectively established as an auxiliary orgon of the Cultural Properties Preservation Committee as shown below.

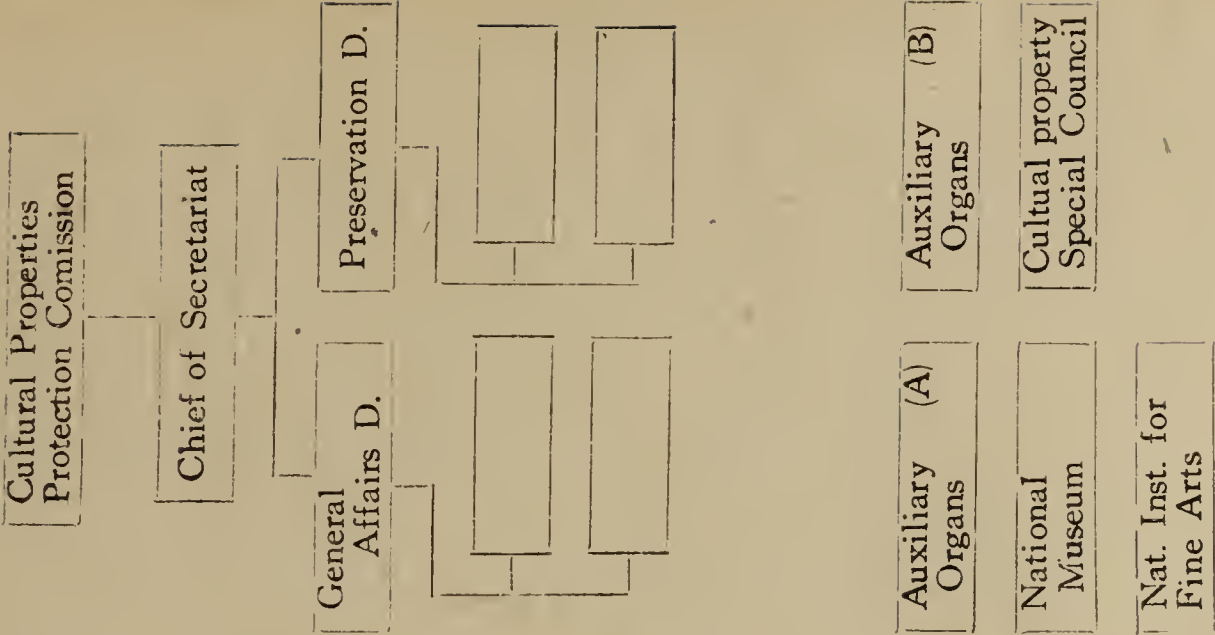


Table 24 A Ministry of Education

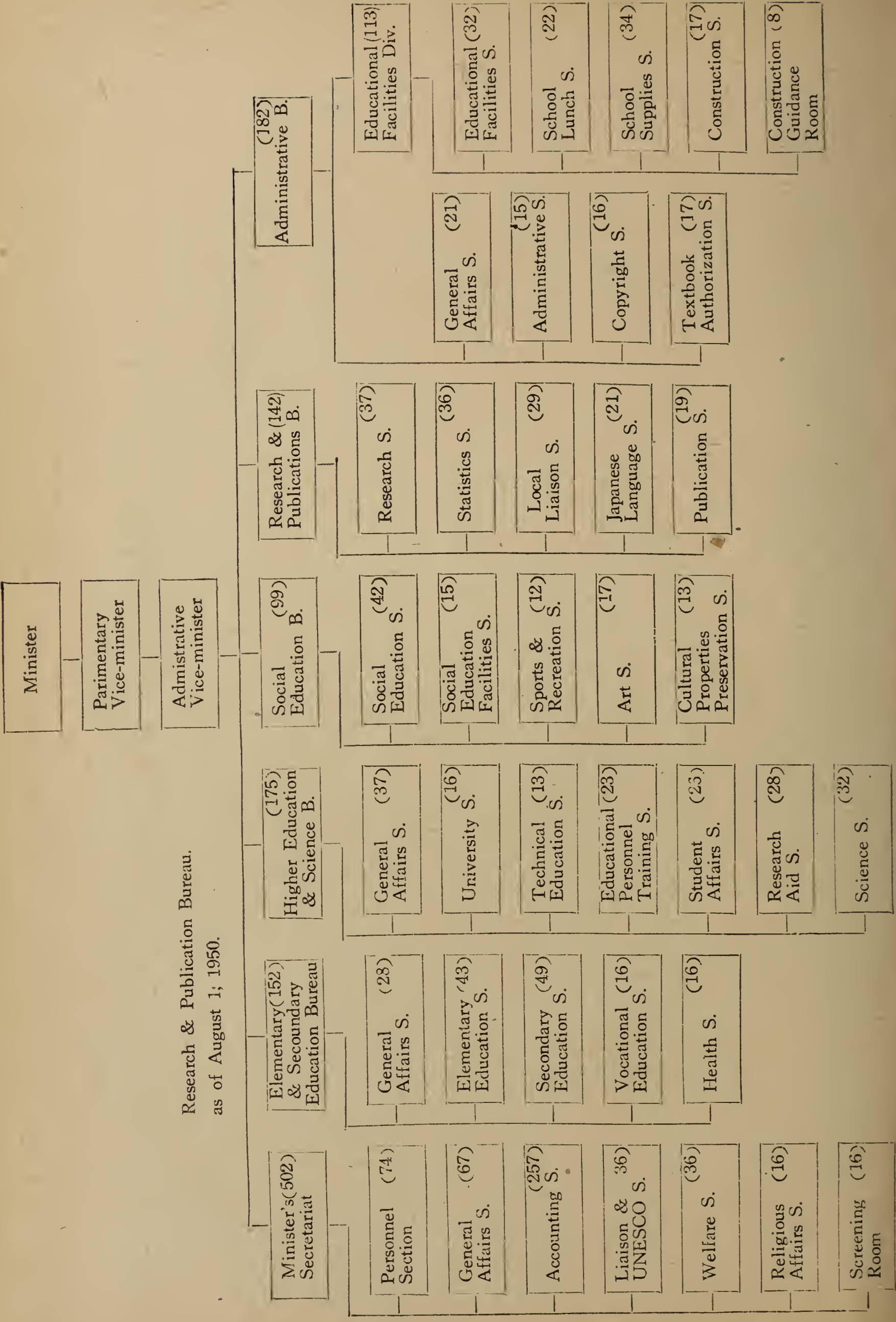


Table 23

Grant-in-Aid for Natural Science Research

As of July, 1950
(Unit: 1,000 Yen) Higher Education & Science Bureau

Items	Grant-in-Aid for Fundamental Scientific Research		Grant-in-Aid for Development of Scientific Research		Grant-in-Aid for Special Researchers in Cultural Science		Grant-in-Aid for Encouragement of Scientific Research		Grant-in-Aid for Publishing Research Results		Grant-in-Aid for Private Research Institute		Total	
	(Number of items)	Amount	(Number of items)	Amount	(Number of items)	Amount	(Number of items)	Amount	(Number of items)	Amount	(Number of items)	Amount	(Number of items)	Amount
Literature	1,042	21,556	—	—	106	2,594	325	1,444	56	4,960	—	—	1,529	30,554
Jurisprudence	166	4,595	—	—	31	509	—	—	23	1,980	—	—	220	7,084
Economics	248	7,115	—	—	36	1,434	—	—	20	2,390	—	—	304	10,939
Social Science	—	—	58	15,000	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	58	15,000
Science	1,637	36,211	—	—	4	200	241	1,143	24	3,760	—	—	1,906	41,314
Industry	2,404	60,475	290	42,730	6	290	66	319	35	3,660	—	—	2,801	107,474
Agriculture	998	27,733	100	20,170	8	256	76	360	21	2,220	—	—	1,203	50,739
Medicine	936	28,875	207	20,560	4	177	—	—	42	3,200	—	—	1,189	52,312
Others	—	—	7	10,200	1	40	51	234	—	—	—	—	59	10,474
Comprehensive study	118	58,940	—	—	—	—	—	—	25	2,830	—	—	143	61,770
Total	7,549	245,000	662	108,660	196	5,500	759	3,500	246	25,000	—	40,000	9,412	1,387,660
Amount per item		32		164		28		5		102		—		147

Remarks: 1. The item of "Others" includes the scientific research for home management, welfare, nutrition and food, and bacteria resisting.
2. The item of "Total" does not include the Grant Aid for Private Research Institute.

Table 22

The Number of Museums by Prefecture

As of March 31, 1948
Social Education Bureau

	Museum					Zoo	Bota- nical garden	Zoolo- gical & Botanical garden	Aqua- rium	Total
	History	Arts	Science	Synthetic	Total					
Hokkaido	1	—	2	4	7	—	2	—	—	9
Aomori	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	1	2
Iwate	—	2	1	—	3	1	1	—	—	5
Miyagi	—	—	1	1	2	1	—	—	1	4
Akita	—	—	—	1	1	—	—	—	—	1
Yamagata	—	2	—	3	5	—	1	—	1	7
Fukushima	1	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	1
Ibaragia	2	2	—	—	4	—	1	—	—	4
Tochigi	—	1	1	2	4	—	—	—	—	5
Gumma	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Saitama	—	—	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	1
Chiba	1	2	—	1	4	—	—	—	—	4
Tokyo	5	8	11	1	25	2	2	1	—	30
Kanagawa	3	3	2	2	10	—	—	—	1	11
Niigata	1	1	3	1	6	—	—	—	1	7
Toyama	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Ishikawa	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	1
Fukui	—	1	—	1	2	—	—	—	—	2
Yamashi	—	—	—	1	1	1	—	—	—	2
Nagano	1	3	—	4	8	—	—	—	—	8
Gifu	—	—	1	—	1	—	—	—	—	2
Shizuoka	—	—	—	2	2	1	1	—	2	6
Aichi	1	3	1	—	5	1	1	—	1	8
Mie	1	—	2	1	4	—	—	—	1	5
Shiga	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kyoto	2	24	—	3	29	1	1	—	—	31
Osaka	—	2	2	—	4	1	2	—	1	8
Hyogo	2	2	—	1	5	2	1	1	—	9
Nara	1	3	2	1	7	—	2	—	—	9
Wakayama	—	2	1	1	4	—	1	—	—	5
Tottori	1	—	—	—	1	—	1	2	—	4
Shimane	1	—	—	2	3	—	—	—	—	3
Okayama	1	1	—	1	3	—	—	—	—	3
Hiroshima	—	2	—	1	3	—	—	—	—	3
Yamaguchi	1	1	2	—	4	—	—	—	—	4
Tokushima	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Kagawa	1	—	2	5	8	2	—	—	—	10
Ehime	—	1	—	—	1	—	—	—	1	2
Kochi	—	—	—	2	2	—	—	—	1	3
Fukuoka	2	—	1	—	3	1	1	—	—	5
Saga	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
Nagasaki	2	—	—	1	3	—	—	—	—	3
Kumamoto	3	—	—	2	5	1	—	—	—	6
Oita	1	—	—	—	1	—	—	—	—	1
Miyazaki	1	1	1	—	3	—	—	—	—	3
Kagoshima	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1	—	1
Total	36	68	37	45	186	15	19	6	12	233

Diagram 5

Promulgatim chart of Citizens' Public Hall

(as of 1st apr. 1950)



Figures show the total number of Citizens' public Halls (incl their branches) by Prefectures.

Table 21

Survey of Libraries by Prefecture

As of March, 1949, Social Education Bureau

	Number of libraries			Number of books			Number of visitors		Number of librarian	Number of books per 100 persons
	Indepen- dent	Attached	Total	Japanese books	Foreign books	Total	Total number	Per day		
Hokkaido	11	9	20	243,061	7,663	250,724	218,335	296	74	6.5
Aomori	3	8	11	63,018	1,375	64,393	17,975	23	25	5.5
Iwate	3	82	86(1)	68,670	749	69,419	63,710	33	150	5.5
Miyagi	6	98	104	94,924	220	95,144	102,363	64	175	6.1
Akita	10	5	16(1)	158,375	12,664	171,039	358,096	444	52	13.6
Yamagata	7	23	30	235,196	14,879	250,075	135,701	52	106	18.7
Fukushima	7	7	14	145,814	2,550	148,364	169,779	277	55	7.4
Ioaragi	2	4	7(1)	17,215	177	17,392	(31,811)	(31)	23	0.9
Tochigi	4	3	7	58,677	5,241	63,918	44,363	120	26	4.2
Gumma	8	6	14	172,353	35,863	208,221	317,421	332	76	13.2
Saitama	7	78	88(3)	95,060	21,331	116,441	163,674	75	283	5.5
Chiba	16	77	108(15)	297,753	9,957	307,710	184,078	128	147	14.6
Tokyo	23	13	36	1,331,614	133,158	1,514,772	495,885	129	279	30.3
Kanagawa	7	23	30	197,197	19,377	216,574	182,525	38	134	9.8
Niigata	12	46	62(4)	303,122	9,113	312,235	431,291	306	185	12.9
Toyama	12	44	58(2)	274,980	3,676	278,656	318,290	216	173	28.4
Ishikawa	9	111	124(4)	266,055	8,583	274,638	241,373	252	326	29.6
Fukui	3	1	5(1)	62,376	12,197	74,573	101,586	188	21	10.0
Yamanashi	3	5	8	48,944	325	49,269	21,848	86	21	6.1
Nagoya	18	49	75(8)	305,995	17,018	323,013	373,116	221	472	15.7
Gifu	4	2	6	47,671	208	47,879	568,463	516	24	3.2
Shizuoka	7	17	24	100,910	4,843	105,753	131,763	204	71	4.5
Aichi	8	25	42(9)	374,397	4,933	379,330	281,798	33	138	12.1
Mie	8	17	25	84,520	3,213	87,733	73,949	36	63	6.2
Shiga	6	2	8	191,154	7,066	198,220	203,737	256	36	23.1
Kyoto	6	1	7	203,041	10,708	213,749	106,479	187	46	12.3
Osaka	3	6	9	426,334	64,382	490,716	286,532	620	134	14.7
Hyogo	7	7	14	243,336	12,811	256,197	192,119	77	92	8.4
Nara	5	15	20	349,395	44,035	393,430	95,215	182	96	50.4
Wakayama	3	0	3	88,161	970	89,131	68,119	262	16	9.3
Tottori	3	4	8(1)	76,065	821	76,886	53,670	119	34	13.1
Shi nane	3	5	9(1)	64,777	3,236	68,013	36,967	65	28	7.6
Okayama	9	19	30(2)	153,212	54,334	207,546	(163,029)	(37)	74	12.8
Hiroshima	10	162	173(1)	52,957	1,113	54,070	70,540	327	36	2.7
Yamaguchi	17	46	66(3)	300,158	12,993	313,151	504,076	727	158	21.2
Tokushima	4	4	9(1)	27,914	7,295	35,209	(19,970)	(17)	27	4.1
Kagawa	7	13	21(1)	141,147	3,750	144,897	(84,215)	(25)	84	15.8
Ehime	11	13	24	110,895	2,106	113,001	145,068	96	98	7.8
Kochi	2	13	19(4)	39,870	2,195	42,065	41,233	51	39	5.0
Fukuoka	8	13	22(1)	120,067	7,365	127,432	527,266	182	84	4.0
Saga	1	1	12	142,303	3,695	145,998	245,275	235	43	16.1
Nagasaki	6	41	47	128,593	4,364	132,957	71,515	149	110	8.7
Kumamoto	6	0	6	44,337	1,749	46,086	88,951	186	24	3.6
Oita	5	3	9(1)	89,487	18,048	107,535	125,736	80	29	8.7
Miyazaki	4	1	5	37,959	20,697	58,656	118,045	367	35	5.7
Kagoshima	8	19	28(1)	81,073	1,245	82,318	42,262	126	33	4.7
Total	342	1,141	1,549(66)	8,210,187	614,341	8,824,528	8,313,262	8,483	4,455	11.3

Remarks: 1. The number in the perenthesi in the column of "number of libraries" shows the number of libraries which is not clear whether independent or attached.

2. The number in the parenthesis in the column of "number of visitors" does not include the number of visitors to the central library because the survey has not been made there yet.

3. National library is not in this table.

4. The number of visitors per day is not the yearly average.

Table 19

School Expenses Lending State by Japan Scholarship Association

(Japan Scholarship Association)

	Number of students who receive scholarship	Loan budget for 1950	Remarks (monthly amount per capital)
New System Upper Sencondary School	24,907	¥ 200,860,500	Less than ¥ 500
University	25,093	889,958,100	Less than ¥ 1,900
Intern	1,679	—	Less than ¥ 2,100
Educational Scholarship Students	—	342,000,000	A ¥ 500 B ¥ 1,800
Special Scholarship Students	255	27,363,000	¥ 3,000—4,000
Special Studies Scholarship Students	586	45,216,000	¥ 5,800
Correspondence Education Scholarship Students	40	1,800,000	¥ 6,000 (For each inter- view period)
Total	52,560	1,507,197,600	

Remarks: The number of scholarship students is the same as the number figured on June 30, 1950.

Table 20

Statistics Concerning Correspondence Education

(Elementary & Secondary Education)

1. School Education

As of Dec. 1, 1949.

	Subject	Number of Schools	Number of Teachers			Number of pupils
			Proper	Additional	Total	
Lower Secondary School	Japanese language, Mathe- matics, Science and Vocation	82	52	309	361	3,543
Upper Secondary School	Japanese language, Analytical Geometry 1. 2, Descriptive geography, Physical geography, Chinese classics, General social studies, General mathematics and Geometry	82	67	452	519	12,043

Remarks: Total number of lower secondary and upper secondary schools is 164. The number of schools which include both lower secondary and upper secondary schools is summed up separately. They are 71.

Table 17

Living Expenses and Side-work Income of Students.

As of May 31, 1950
Higher Education: & Science Bureau

	General Average	New University	Old University	New Univer- sity (night course)	Old Univer- sity (night course)
1. Required amount for continuation of Study	5,462	5,403	5,565	5,446	5,429
2. Actual Expenditure in May, 1950	4,293	4,178	4,424	4,608	4,840
Student's own house	2,897	2,867	2,732	3,392	4,017
Dormitory	4,905	4,939	4,793	5,652	3,972
Others	5,903	6,089	5,687	5,756	5,756
3. Amount sent from Parents	3,482	3,643	3,345	2,437	2,079
Student's own house	2,496	2,650	2,136	1,962	2,000
Dormitory	3,730	3,933	3,002	2,260	2,864
Others	4,502	4,977	4,205	2,781	2,117
4. Desired amount of side-work income	2,575	2,308	2,458	4,412	4,619
Student's own house	2,596	2,361	2,654	4,067	4,443
Dormitory	2,017	1,846	2,398	4,379	4,961
Others	2,732	2,459	2,517	4,489	4,779
5. Actual amount of side-work income	2,663	1,850	2,241	5,358	5,642
Student's own house	2,662	1,879	2,302	5,263	5,664
Dormitory	1,809	1,417	2,076	5,572	5,770
Others	2,898	2,061	2,228	5,423	5,616

Remarks: 1. This list is made concerning the figure during the month of May, 1950.
2. Reference will be made to the Table 18 for the number of students involved in this survey.

Table 18

Students Side-work

As of May 31, 1950
Higher Education & Science Bureau

By dwelling	Number of Surveyee (A)	Those who want to have sidework (B)	$\frac{(B)}{(A)}$	Those who found employ- ment (C)	$\frac{(C)}{(A)}$
Own house	36,272	20,495	56.50%	6,764	18.65%
Dormitory	6,651	5,049	75.91%	1,733	26.13%
Others	27,750	16,883	60.84%	6,627	23.88%
Total	70,673	42,427	60.03%	15,129	21.40%

Remarks: The term for survey is same as Table 17.

Table 16

List of the State of Reconstruction of Public Schools

As of May 1950
(Administrative Bureau)

	Damaged dimension	Reconstruction dimension by the end of March 1950	Percentage of reconstruction
University & College	25,416	9,662	38.1%
Secondary School	567,683	178,421	31.4%
Elementary School	1,432,915	453,571	31.7%
School for blind & deaf	24,929	9,701	39.0%
Total	2,050,943	651,355	31.3%

Diagram 4

Percentage of Dimensions of Public School Buildings by the
years after their Construction.

As of May 30, 1348.
(Administrative Bureau)

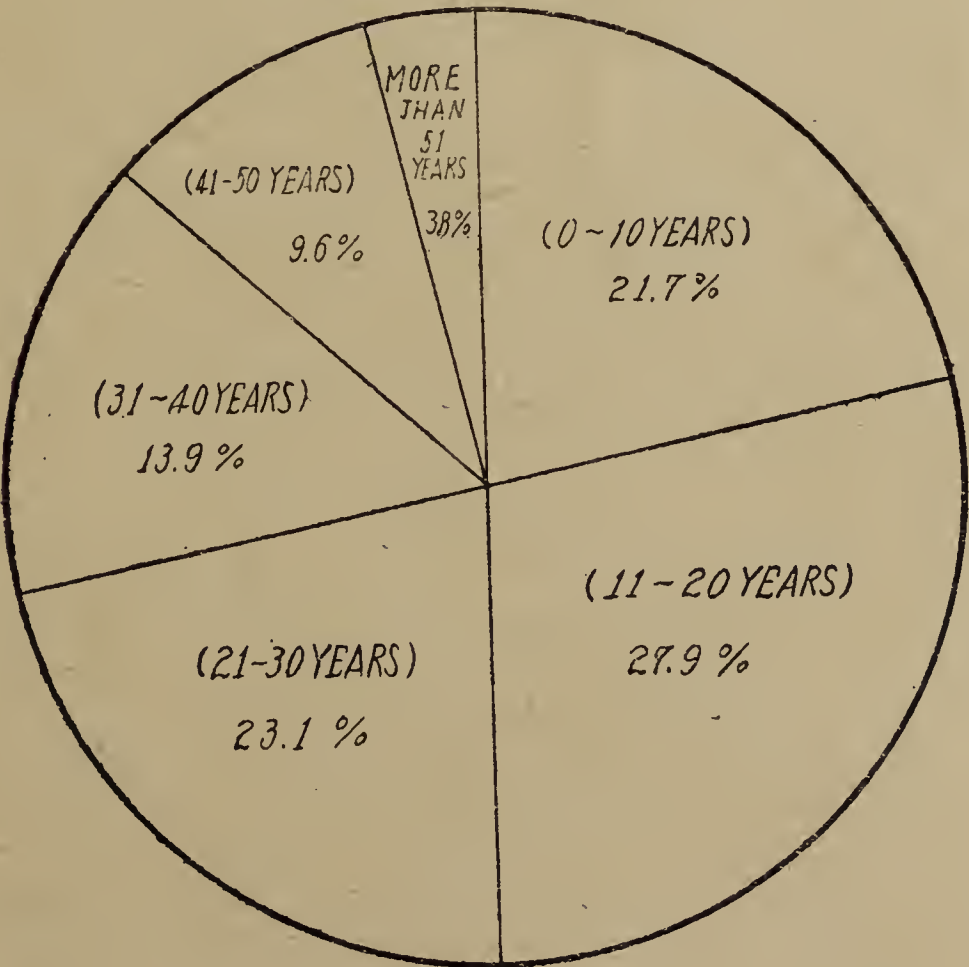


Diagram 3

Percentage of all the Public Elementary and Lower Secondary
Schools by grades of Standard

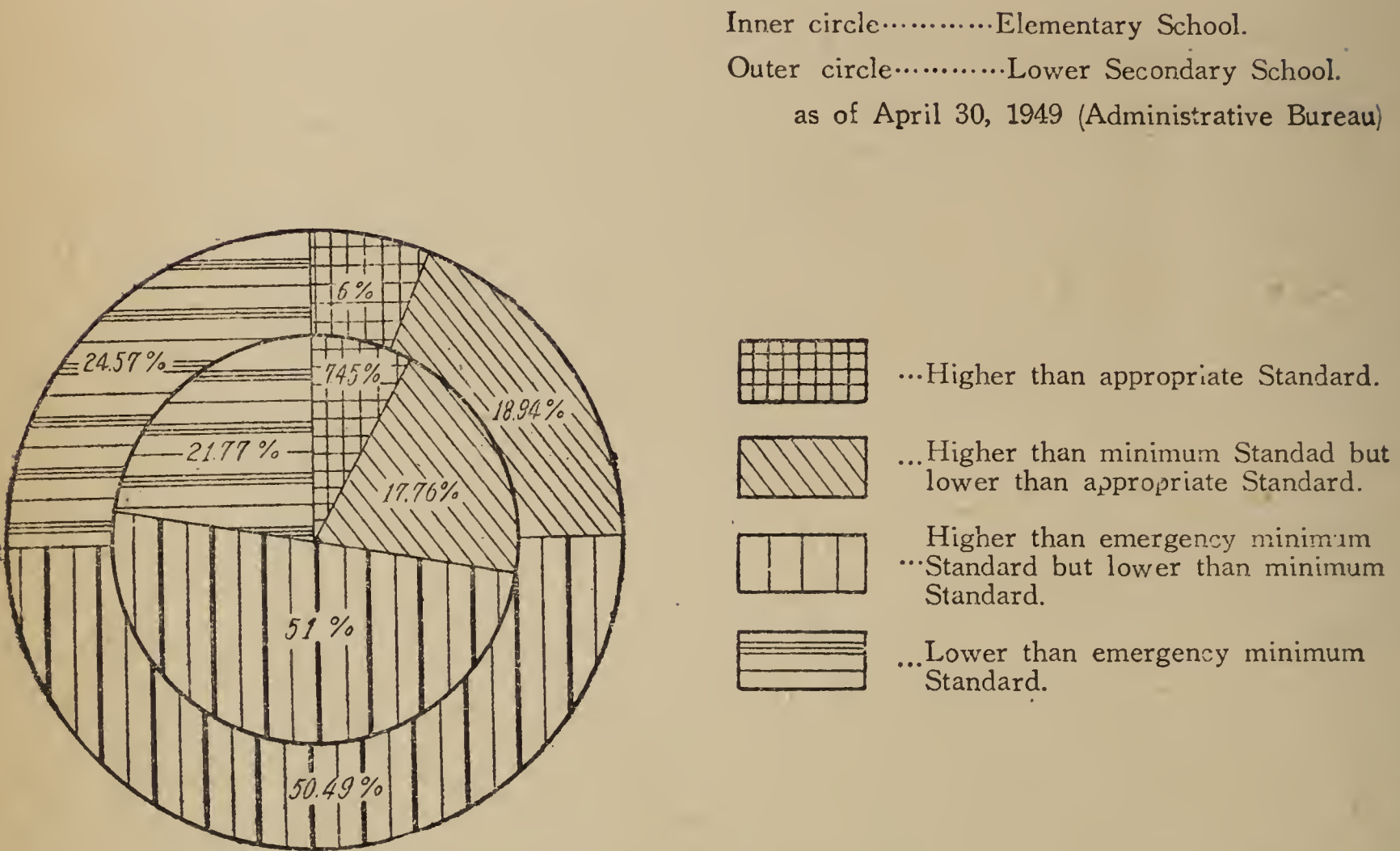


Table 15

Dimenaions of Puplic School Buildings by the Years
After their Construction.

As of May 30, 1948
(Administrative Bureau)

Years after construction Schools	0~10 years	11~20 years	21~30 years	21~40 years	41~50 years	More than 51~ years	Total
Elmentary School	5,092,405	10,037,284	7,922,438	5,655,148	3,806,704	1,535,488	34,049,467
Lower Secondary School	6,106,886	5,829,423	4,566,459	2,324,458	1,657,733	695,295	21,180,254
Upper Secondary School	2,660,138	2,016,474	2,296,730	871,124	709,734	186,773	8,740,973
Old Middle School	16,458	20,670	8,862	13,346	3,076	1,385	63,797
School for blind	19,638	23,403	18,105	8,996	3,046	—	78,188
School for deaf	23,620	34,947	12,592	7,694	7,323	—	86,176
Total (Square meter)	13,919,145	17,967,201	14,825,186	8,880,766	6,187,616	2,418,941	64,198,855
Porcentage	21.7	27.9	23.1	13.9	9.6	3.8	100%

Table 13

Statistics of University Library

As of May 30, 1949
Research & Publications Bureau

			National	Public	Private	Total
Number of Library	Number of Library by number of books	Less than 10,000	3	11	14	28
		10,000— 30,000	8	6	37	51
		30,000— 50,000	11	3	13	27
		50,000—100,000	20	2	13	35
		100,000—500,000	20	1	18	39
		More than 500,000	4	—	1	5
		Total	66	23	96	185
Number of books	Japanese books		5,760,576	497,122	4,330,613	10,588,311
	Foreign books		3,419,623	220,990	1,438,612	5,079,225
	Total		9,180,199	718,112	5,769,225	15,667,536
Utilization	Teacher		393,988	30,137	194,786	618,911
	Student		1397,813	80,883	990,210	2,468,906
	Public		77,586	268	52,573	130,427
	Total		1,869,387	111,288	1,237,569	3,218,244

Table 14 Number of Public Elementary & Lower Secondary
 Schools in Japan by Grades of Standard.

As of April 30, 1949.

(Administrative Bureau)

Item	Higher than appropriate standard	Higher than minimum standard but lower than appropriate standard	Higher than emergency minimum standard but lower than minimum S.	Lower than emergency minimum standard	Total
Number of city, town, and village	1,079	2,405	4,928	2,066	10,478
Number of elementary and lower secondary schools (central school)	2,232	6,271	16,367	7,338	32,208
Elementary school	1,542	4,093	10,562	4,513	20,710
Lower sec. school	690	2,178	5,805	2,825	11,498
Number of pupils	612,396	2,295,833	8,150,633	4,829,178	15,888,045
Elementary school	442,331	1,570,372	5,612,938	3,365,787	10,991,428
Lower sec. school	170,065	725,466	2,537,695	1,463,391	4,896,617
Present dimension of school building (square meter)	930,868	2,519,413	6,462,803	2,859,272	12,772,356
Elementary school	693,745	1,763,327	4,572,211	2,000,391	9,029,674
Lower sec. school	237,123	756,086	1,890,592	858,881	3,742,682
Dimension of indoor gymnasium (square meter)	106,446	294,860	626,960	241,274	1,269,540
Elementary school	88,644	220,341	488,298	179,715	976,998
Lower sec. school	17,802	74,519	138,662	61,559	292,542

Remarks: The above standard dimension is in accordance with the dimension of school building
(Following list , which is essential to the education of one student.

	Elementary school	Lower Secondary School
Appropriate standard	3 96 square meter	6.93 square meter
Minimum standard	3 30 " "	4 95 " "
Emergency minimum standards	2 31 " "	2 31 " "

Table 12

Life Courses of School Graduates (Higher & Secondary Education)

June 30, 1949 Research & Publications Bureau,

Graduated Schools	Life courses after graduation	Continuation of School	Agriculture, Forestry, Fishery	Mining	Constructing Industry	Metal Industry	Instrument & Implement Industry	Chemical Industry	Spinning Industry	Sawing & Wooden Industry	Food Industry	Other Engineering	Business for Gas, Lights & Water	Wholesale Business	Retailing	Other Commerce	Banking Business	Transportation & Communication Bus	Service	Education	Other Occupations	Public business & Organization	Other Industry	Total	No Occupation	Dead	Unknown	Total
Universities :		3,576	131	457	345	259	939	736	65	49	146	393	276	160	75	1,093	1,071	238	25	1,052	5,111	863	705	9,924	704	13	2,164	16,381
D. of Science		149	—	20	—	2	10	42	—	—	2	16	2	—	—	1	12	8	—	17	31	23	3	299	63	1	14	526
D. of Science & Eng.		11	1	36	62	9	120	40	—	—	2	6	14	1	1	11	—	18	—	10	14	4	5	362	40	—	13	426
D. of Engineering		128	4	146	169	91	372	247	44	3	10	141	123	3	1	16	1	94	3	48	76	97	19	1,707	133	6	122	2,101
D. of Agriculture		62	53	4	8	1	2	44	7	22	48	13	3	3	4	7	17	—	1	51	50	133	5	481	63	—	42	648
Medical D.		2,580	—	—	—	—	—	35	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—
D. of Literature	}																											
D. of Theology		263	4	—	1	3	7	5	6	—	4	4	2	7	—	119	10	8	4	37	169	53	95	897	95	—	255	1,510
D. of Law & Literature		73	29	43	9	23	16	23	4	1	1	7	24	1	4	40	75	6	2	133	34	89	118	697	93	3	64	920
D. of Law		136	6	60	30	56	89	73	52	7	17	33	41	2	4	191	278	59	2	70	114	204	58	1,466	52	—	512	2,166
D. of Politics & Economics	}																											
D. of Law & Economics		7	2	15	1	10	51	15	17	1	2	12	17	49	23	136	87	19	—	5	32	31	12	539	—	—	287	833
D. of Economics		66	20	66	56	39	199	162	115	8	29	102	34	80	25	297	401	53	10	74	20	215	367	2,372	142	1	298	2,879
D. of Commerce		26	7	46	13	23	73	45	47	7	31	45	16	14	13	270	189	23	3	30	6	13	23	937	10	—	488	1,461
D. of Literature & Science		75	—	1	—	2	—	—	—	—	—	4	—	—	—	5	1	—	—	116	—	6	—	135	3	—	63	281
Colleges :		14,882	1,657	742	1,239	657	2,192	1,825	1,041	170	478	803	664	673	423	1,730	1,604	903	149	5,169	3,973	3,398	1,001	30,500	9,329	34	6,650	61,395
F. of Engineering	}																											
F. of Science		1,278	142	409	730	435	1,386	809	400	53	78	273	380	46	42	133	25	369	54	847	424	625	159	7,819	1,535	5	1,208	11,845
F. of Agriculture	}																											
F. of Marine Products		461	1,043	2	96	—	28	96	251	54	196	38	7	21	12	63	23	8	3	59	136	959	37	3,862	410	4	602	5,339
F. of Fibre	}																											
F. of Medicine		5,019	7	2	—	1	3	361	4	—	8	23	—	74	101	23	1	—	1	155	1,311	74	6	2,155	1,257	5	381	8,817
F. of Dentistry	}																											
F. of Pharmacology		804	88	132	33	82	57	151	16	16	59	104	45	318	73	332	676	67	17	100	118	120	125	2,966	285	3	441	4,519
Others		7,320	377	197	430	139	618	408	218	47	137	365	232	214	200	1,179	879	459	73	3,470	1,734	1,620	674	13,678	5,242	17	4,018	30,875
Upper Sec. Sch.		34,769	15,041	889	2,002	1,742	3,498	2,121	1,623	717	949	1,388	1,692	1,612	2,853	3,410	5,190	2,442	455	5,452	1,795	8,945	2,819	66,635	26,310	81	9,595	137,389
General Course		30,700	8,134	436	532	866	1,219	777	733	342	517	691	630	733	1,837	2,341	3,331	1,393	316	3,932	1,232	5,560	1,967	37,604	21,293	44	7,241	96,872
Engineering		1,291	914	315	1,176	657	1,887	1,026	76	203	103	433	885	82	218	230	79	531	47	367	159	936	344	11,098	1,376	5	793	14,553
Agriculture		1,110	4,720	29	96	40	47	40	56	81	78	35	21	36	90	107	89	72	17	865	263	1,510	106	8,338	1,451	10	495	11,404
Marine Products		30	202	—	1	—	10	7	1	3	48	2	—	6	11	4	—	9	2	32	16	70	10	435	53	—	—	518
Commerce		1,212	499	107	123	170	325	243	290	76	179	222	155	730	636	648	1,566	402	62	123	70	723	153	7,700	1,149	19	875	10,955
Home Making		305	578	2	11	7	10	2	37	11	20	13	1	13	54	72	70	24	11	162	39	133	35	1,305	942	2	176	2,730
Others		130	4	—	8	2	—	21	—	1	4	2	—	7	7	8	5	21	—	30	16	13	6	155	56	1	15	357
Old System Middle Sch.		3,695	21,001	583	1,760	1,532	3,199	1,709	1,991	892	1,037	1,417	1,315	1,661	3,368	4,269	4,927	2,130	798	3,925	2,360	7,460	3,477	70,872	47,405	69	6,967	164,008
New System Lower Sec. Sch.		633,905	293,035	2,410	12,470	9,435	19,642	6,533	30,892	11,211	6,901	14,200	3,005	4,120	17,119	12,777	3,984	9,223	5,101	9,896	15,035	14,441	501,725	124,392	374	23,430	1,283,826	
Total		725,826	330,865	5,081	17,869	13,625	29,470	13,229	38,553	13,039	9,563	18,191	6,952	8,226	23,849	23,279	16,776	14,996	6,527	41,211	35,706	22,443	679,666	208,140	571	48,806	1,662,999	

Table 12

As of June 30, 1949 Research & Publications Bureau,

Graduated Schools	Other Free Occu- pations	Public Business & Orga- nization	Other Industry	Total	No Occupa- tion	Dead	Un- known	Total
Universities:	513	868	705	9,924	704	13	2,164	16,381
D. of Scien	33	23	3	299	63	1	14	526
D. of Scien	14	4	5	362	40	—	13	426
D. of Eng	76	97	19	1,707	138	6	122	2,101
D. of Agric	50	133	5	481	63	—	42	648
Medical D	6	—	—	42	5	2	1	2,630
D. of Liter	168	53	95	897	95	—	255	1,510
D. of The								
D. of Law	34	89	118	637	93	3	64	920
D. of Law	114	204	58	1,466	52	—	512	2,166
D. of Polit	32	31	12	539	—	—	287	833
D. of Law								
D. of Econ	20	215	367	2,372	142	1	298	2,879
D. of Com	6	13	23	937	10	—	488	1,461
D. of Liter	—	6	—	135	3	—	63	281
Colleges:	3,923	3,398	1,001	30,500	9,329	34	6,650	61,395
F. of Engi								
F. of Scien	424	625	159	7,819	1,535	5	1,208	11,845
F. of Agric								
F. of Mari	336	959	37	3,862	410	4	602	5,339
F. of Fibre								
F. of Medi	1,311	74	6	2,155	1,257	5	381	8,817
F. of Dent								
F. of Phar								
F. of Econ	118	120	125	2,986	285	3	441	4,519
Others	1,734	1,620	674	13,678	5,842	17	4,018	30,875
Upper Sec. S	1,795	8,945	2,819	66,635	26,310	81	9,595	137,389
General C	1,232	5,560	1,967	37,604	21,283	44	7,241	96,872
Engineerin	159	936	344	11,098	1,376	5	793	14,553
Agricultur	263	1,510	106	8,333	1,451	10	495	11,404
Marine Pro	16	70	10	435	53	—	—	518
Commerce	70	723	153	7,700	1,149	19	875	10,955
Home Mak	39	133	35	1,305	942	2	176	2,730
Others	16	13	6	155	56	1	15	357
Old System	2,360	7,460	3,477	70,872	47,405	69	6,967	164,008
New System	880	15,035	14,441	501,725	124,392	374	23,430	1,283,826
Total	123	35,706	22,443	679,666	208,140	571	48,806	1,662,999

Table 11 Number of Teachers by Levels of School and by
Kinds of Job

As of April 30, 1949

Research & Publications Bureau.

Item		President Principal	Professor Instructor	Assistant Professor Assistant Instructor	School Nurse	Lecturer	Others	Total	
Total number		34,413	411,640	111,961	7,297	16,526	3,720	585,557	
New Univ.	Total	164	3,037	1,958	—	942	364	6,465	
	National	{ (Male)	58	747	718	—	171	103	1,797
		{ (Female)	—	9	31	—	11	8	59
	Public	{ (M.)	15	211	255	—	73	49	603
		{ (F.)	—	5	7	—	3	9	24
	Private	{ (M.)	86	1,961	867	—	625	118	3,657
	{ (F.)	5	104	80	—	59	77	325	
Old Univ. & College	Total	312	10,075	5,561	—	1,980	905	18,833	
	National	{ (M.)	140	6,388	4,151	—	1,026	304	12,009
		{ (F.)	—	132	426	—	54	37	649
	Public	{ (M.)	60	942	382	—	163	82	1,629
		{ (F.)	—	51	62	—	17	27	157
	Private	{ (M.)	97	2,273	405	—	641	297	3,713
	{ (F.)	15	289	135	—	79	158	676	
New Upp. Sec. Sch.	Total	2,710	61,517	2,790	1	6,978	1,385	75,381	
	National	{ (M.)	—	167	16	—	5	14	202
		{ (F.)	—	46	—	—	5	1	52
	Public	{ (M.)	1,926	44,160	1,530	—	4,718	909	53,243
		{ (F.)	1	7,784	589	1	1,154	317	9,846
	Private	{ (M.)	674	6,694	372	—	783	71	8,594
	{ (F.)	109	2,666	283	—	313	73	3,444	
New Low Sec. Sch	Total	11,152	144,981	20,127	1,163	4,874	430	182,727	
	National	{ (M.)	21	818	1	—	39	5	884
		{ (F.)	—	182	—	7	30	2	221
	Public	{ (M.)	10,831	104,825	13,718	—	2,954	251	132,579
		{ (F.)	12	31,463	6,017	1,090	1,142	101	39,825
	Private	{ (M.)	249	4,985	228	1	461	48	5,972
	{ (F.)	39	2,708	163	65	248	23	3,246	
Ele- mentary Sch.	Total	20,075	192,030	81,525	6,133	1,752	636	302,151	
	National	{ (M.)	27	1,124	—	—	—	1	1,152
		{ (F.)	—	229	1	52	4	2	288
	Public	{ (M.)	19,825	96,739	31,174	—	565	222	148,525
		{ (F.)	108	92,784	50,213	6,060	1,153	388	150,706
	Private	{ (M.)	105	782	58	—	8	14	967
	{ (F.)	10	372	79	21	22	9	513	

Remarks: 1. Director shall be included in "Professor & Instructor."

2. This list shows proper teachers, not those who are additionally in a position of teacher.

Item		Number of Fac- ulties (by day, night)	Number of Stud- ents to be adm- itted	Applicants			Admitted			Percen- tage of Admis- sion
				Male	Fe- male	Total	Male	Fe- male	Total	
Economics Fac.	National	{ 13	1,942	5,051	16	5,067	2,276	11	2,287	45.14
		* 1	80	217	—	217	81	—	81	37.33
	Public	1	120	534	—	534	148	—	148	27.72
	Private	{ 15	4,650	11,609	36	11,645	6,402	27	6,429	55.21
		* 6	1,470	2,704	38	2,742	1,657	18	1,675	61.09
	Total	36	8,262	20,115	90	20,205	10,564	56	10,620	52.56
Commerce Fac. Commerce & Economics Fac. Business Aamin- stration Fac.	National	{ 3	390	1,496	9	1,505	535	—	535	35.54
		* 1	80	210	—	210	84	—	84	40.00
	Public	3	670	2,688	5	2,693	645	4	649	24.10
	Private	{ 15	4,585	10,565	32	10,597	6,085	16	6,072	57.30
		* 8	2,370	3,768	23	3,791	2,283	9	2,292	60.46
	Total	30	8,095	18,727	69	18,796	9,603	29	9,632	51.24
Science Fac.	National	{ 12	1,510	3,834	112	3,946	1,443	35	1,478	37.46
		1	105	1,236	20	1,258	94	12	106	8.44
	Public	3	400	1,184	34	1,218	560	15	575	47.20
	Private	{ * 1	240	604	24	628	395	11	406	64.65
	Total	17	2,255	6,858	190	7,048	2,492	72	2,565	36.39
Science & Engineering Fac.	Public	{ 1	200	1,323	11	1,334	256	1	257	19.27
		3	1,235	1,858	10	1,868	1,346	7	1,353	72.43
	Private	{ * 3	570	1,433	1	1,434	433	1	434	30.26
	Total	7	2,005	4,614	22	4,636	2,035	9	2,044	44.09
Engineering Fac. Mining Fac. Tele-communi- cation Fac. Industrial Arts Fac.	National	{ 33	6,046	14,306	44	14,350	5,951	17	5,968	41.59
		* 1	60	130	1	131	60	1	61	46.59
	Public	5	830	4,091	4	4,095	659	2	661	16.14
	Private	{ 14	3,130	4,555	10	4,565	2,771	5	2,776	38.91
		* 3	840	1,615	7	1,622	990	1	991	61.10
	Total	56	10,906	24,697	66	24,763	10,431	26	10,457	42.22
Agriclture Fac. Cardening Fac.	National	20	2,735	4,509	48	4,557	2,531	30	2,561	56.20
	Public	4	375	696	1	693	326	—	326	46.77
	Private	4	1,640	1,500	1	1,501	962	1	963	64.16
	Total	28	4,750	6,705	50	6,755	3,819	31	3,850	56.99
Veterinary & Stock-raising Fac. Fisheries & Stock-raising Fac Fisheries Fac.	National	5	550	979	—	979	549	—	549	56.08
	Private	2	240	199	1	200	137	1	138	69.00
	Total	7	790	1,178	1	1,179	686	1	687	58.27
Textile Fac.	National	3	330	627	1	628	307	—	307	48.89
Medicine Fac.	National	9	760	2,456	62	2,518	776	17	793	39.44
Dental Fac.	Public	1	80	60	1	61	52	1	53	86.89
Pharmacy Fac.	National	5	280	545	23	568	274	11	285	50.18
	Public	2	240	609	37	646	260	14	274	32.41
	Private	8	840	831	333	1,164	520	247	767	65.88
	Total	15	1,360	1,985	393	2,378	1,054	272	1,326	55.78
Home Economy Fac Literature&Home Economy Pac. Science & Home Economy Fac.	National	2	205	—	239	239	—	153	153	66.11
	Public	3	235	83	174	257	36	109	145	56.81
	Private	8	1,470	—	612	612	—	486	486	79.41
	Total	13	1,910	83	1,025	1,108	36	753	789	71.21
Sum Total	National	{ 197	48,728	73,017	4,412	77,429	35,349	3,077	38,426	49.63
		* 3	220	557	1	558	225	1	226	40.50
	Public	27	3,705	14,318	546	14,864	2,993	382	3,375	12.71
	Private	{ 148	34,890	59,236	3,672	62,908	33,328	2,533	35,861	57.01
		* 45	11,545	20,141	225	20,366	11,367	143	11,510	56.52
	Total	420	99,088	167,269	8,856	176,125	83,262	6,136	89,398	50.76

Table 10 Number of Applicants to New System Universities and Those who
were Admitted. (Faculties)

Research & Publications Bureau
as of April 30, 1949

Item		Number of Fac- ulties by day, night)	Number of Stud- ents to be adm- itted	Applicants			Admitted			Percen- tage of Admis- sion
				Male	Fe- male	Total	Male	Fe- male	Total	
Gakugei Fac.	National	26	14,335	9,081	1,833	10,914	7,005	1,466	8,471	77.62
	Public	2	240	—	252	252	—	229	229	90.87
	Private	9	1,400	425	796	1,221	209	527	736	60.28
	Total	37	15,975	9,506	2,881	12,387	7,214	2,222	9,436	76.18
Literature, Science & Liberal Arts Fac.	National	15	4,100	10,967	136	11,103	3,852	54	3,906	35.18
Education Fac.	National	24	10,840	9,069	1,349	10,418	5,645	994	6,639	63.73
	Public	1	200	154	1	155	96	1	97	62.58
	Private	1	250	628	47	675	436	39	475	70.37
	Total	26	11,290	9,851	1,397	11,248	6,177	1,034	7,211	64.11
Physical Educa- tion Fac.	National	1	120	144	2	146	94	2	96	65.75
	Private	1	180	97	4	101	66	2	68	67.33
	Total	2	300	241	6	247	160	4	164	66.40
Art Fac. Fine Art Fac. Music Fac.	National	2	278	580	182	762	167	75	242	31.76
	Private	3	570	496	143	639	223	99	322	50.39
	Total	5	848	1,076	325	1,401	390	174	562	40.26
Literature Fac. Cultural Science Fac.	National	10	1,327	2,411	286	2,697	1,055	172	1,227	45.49
	Public	1	160	1,451	28	1,479	127	8	135	9.13
	Private	30	6,570	7,759	1,394	9,153	4,669	918	5,587	61.04
	Total	* 10	2,590	2,564	80	2,644	1,530	66	1,596	60.36
		51	10,647	14,185	1,788	15,973	7,381	1,164	3,545	53.50
Buddhism Fac. Theology Fac.	Private	8	525	379	7	386	309	5	314	81.34
	Total	* 2	140	31	—	31	24	—	24	77.42
		10	665	410	7	417	333	5	338	81.06
Foreign Language Fac. English Literature Fac.	National	2	670	1,625	9	1,634	655	5	660	40.39
	Public	1	150	750	10	760	187	—	187	24.61
	Private	2	130	—	68	68	—	49	49	72.06
	Total	5	950	2,375	87	2,462	842	54	896	36.39
Literature & Economics Fac. Literature & Politics Fac.	Private	4	1,060	1,599	26	1,625	938	18	956	58.83
	Total	* 1	320	461	10	471	291	5	296	62.85
		5	1,380	2,060	36	2,096	1,229	23	1,252	59.73
Law & Literature Fac. Law & Sociology Fac. Sociology Fac.	National	5	1,210	2,382	43	2,425	1,061	26	1,087	44.83
	Public	1	100	643	2	645	107	1	108	16.74
	Private	1	120	68	2	70	58	2	60	85.71
	Total	* 1	100	127	7	134	105	7	112	83.58
		8	1,530	3,220	54	3,274	1,331	36	1,367	41.75
Law Fac. Politics Fac.	National	4	680	1,633	10	1,693	688	3	691	40.82
	Private	12	3,955	9,849	89	9,938	4,845	56	4,901	49.32
	Total	* 8	2,165	4,603	34	4,637	2,570	24	2,594	55.72
		24	6,800	16,135	133	16,268	8,103	83	8,186	50.32
Law & Econo- mics Fac. Politics & Economics Fac.	National	3	420	1,272	8	1,280	485	1	486	37.97
	Private	5	1,940	5,635	27	5,662	2,821	13	2,834	50.05
	Total	* 2	740	2,231	1	2,232	1,089	1	1,090	48.84
		10	3,100	9,138	36	9,174	4,395	15	4,410	48.07

Diagram 1. Percentag of Number of Students
of New System Universities By Department
as of 15 July 1949 Reseach & Publication Bureau

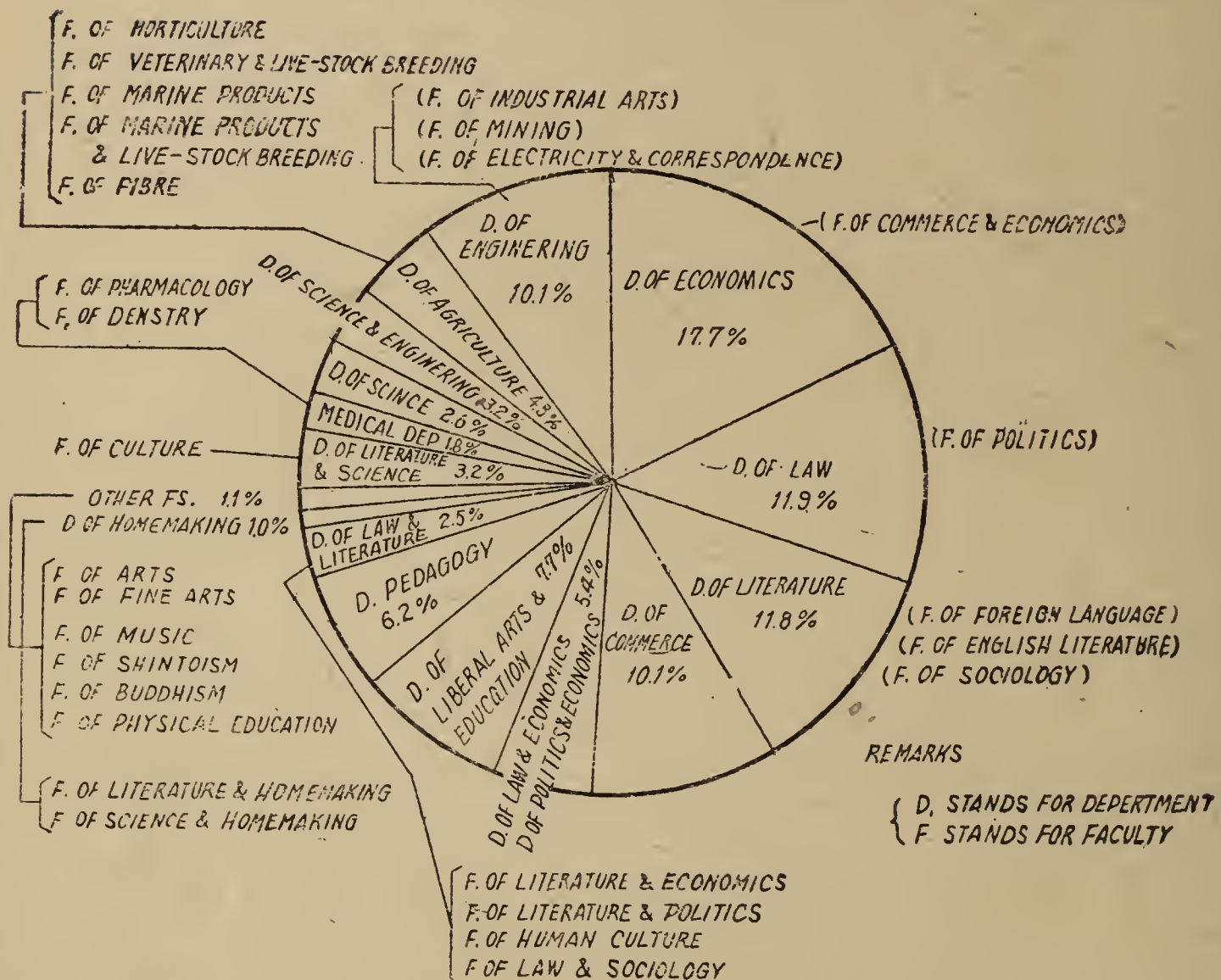
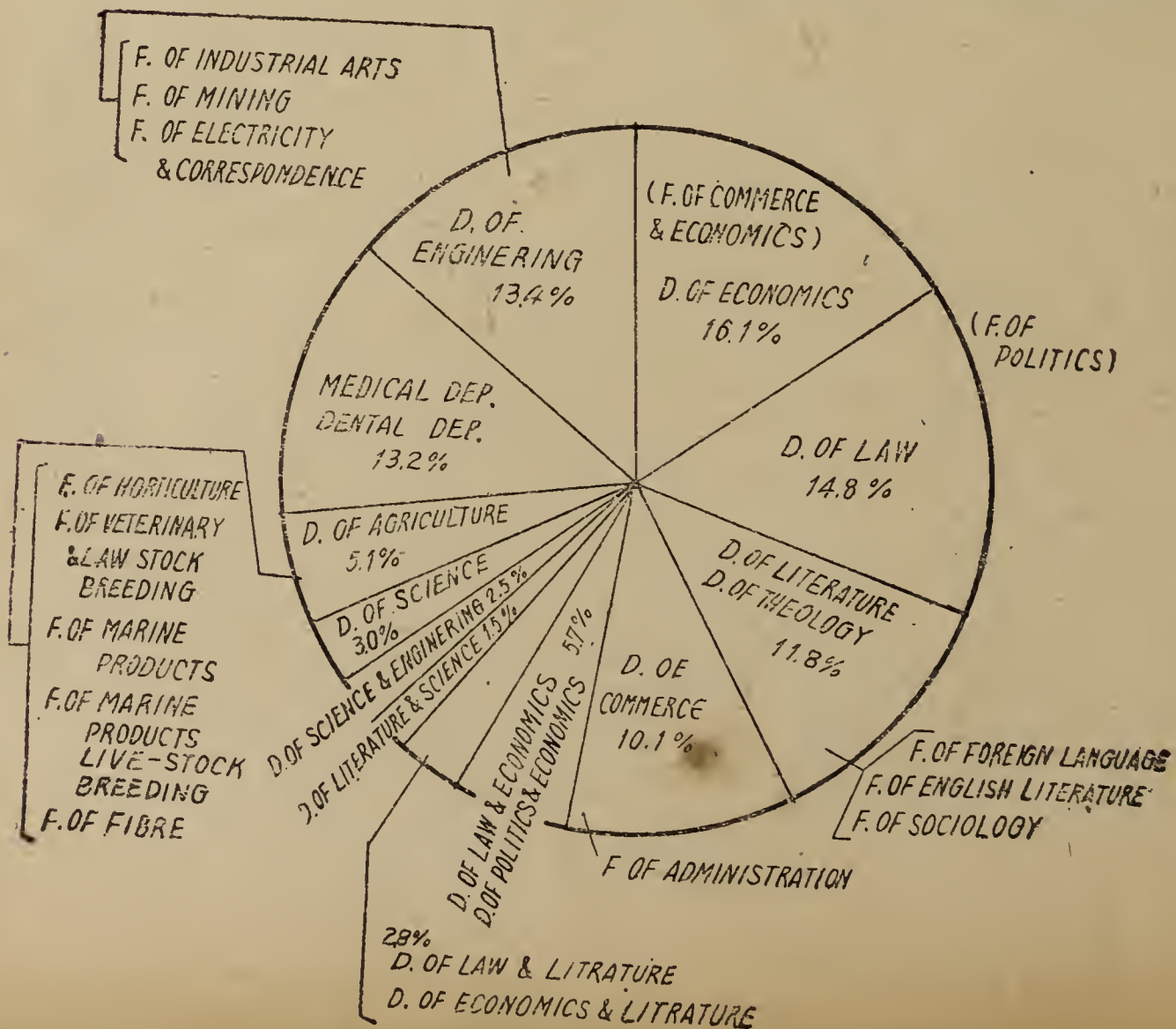


Diagram 2. Percentage of Number of Students
of Old System Universities By Faculty
as of 15 July 1949 Reseach & Publication Bureau



	Old System Universities, High Schools, Colleges												
	Nnnumber of Schools			Number of Teachers			Number of Students				Total		
	National & Public	Pri- vate	Total	Nati- onal & Public	Pri- vate	Total	National & Public		Private				
							Male	Fe- male	Male	Fe- male			
Hokkaido	(13)	3	2	(13)	5	824	55	879	6,120	503		—	240
Aomori	(5)	—	2	(5)	2	203	79	282	887	171	—	108	1,166
Iwate	(4)	2	3	(4)	5	219	57	276	953	263	553	23	1,797
Miyagi	(6)	2	4	(6)	6	562	158	720	4,874	595	1,335	465	7,269
Akita	(3)	1	—	(3)	1	167	—	167	918	201	—	—	1,119
Yamagata	(4)	1	—	(4)	1	209	—	209	1,235	257	—	—	1,542
Hukushima	(3)	2	—	(3)	2	166	—	166	1,063	352	—	—	1,415
Ibaragi	(5)	2	2	(5)	4	232	27	259	1,238	229	372	19	1,908
Tochigi	(3)	—	—	(3)	—	139	—	139	726	176	—	—	902
Gumma	(5)	—	1	(5)	1	180	18	198	1,054	136	—	48	1,238
Saitama	(3)	—	2	(3)	2	101	44	145	572	120	15	18	725
Chiba	(7)	1	13	(7)	14	278	296	574	1,983	151	2,469	339	4,942
Tokyo	(21)	13	126	(21)	137	2,767	6,517	9,284	22,304	2,083	78,371	11,476	114,234
Kanagawa	(4)	5	11	(4)	16	340	431	821	1,663	268	3,580	955	6,466
Niigata	(7)	1	1	(7)	2	325	21	346	2,021	411	66	13	2,511
Toyama	(5)	—	—	(5)	—	163	—	163	895	177	—	—	1,072
Ishikawa	(8)	2	—	(8)	2	343	—	343	2,475	160	—	—	2,635
Fukui	(3)	—	—	(3)	—	171	—	171	646	201	—	—	847
Yamagata	(3)	2	1	(3)	3	157	19	176	875	308	44	—	1,227
Nagano	(7)	2	—	(7)	2	376	—	376	1,777	351	—	—	2,128
Gifu	(3)	5	—	(3)	5	281	—	281	1,593	473	—	—	2,066
Shizuoka	(5)	1	5	(5)	6	320	119	439	1,393	222	530	164	2,309
Aichi	(9)	8	8	(9)	16	855	371	1,226	5,257	1,131	2,532	785	9,705
Mie	(3)	3	3	(3)	6	271	62	333	1,068	208	276	71	1,623
Shiga	(3)	2	—	(3)	2	144	—	144	833	315	—	—	1,148
Kyoto	(7)	6	23	(7)	29	1,021	855	1,876	9,979	757	10,365	1,407	22,508
Osaka	(7)	17	24	(7)	41	1,212	873	2,085	8,460	968	9,109	2,431	20,968
Hyogo	(7)	6	9	(7)	15	501	318	819	3,740	403	1,179	746	6,068
Nara	(3)	3	1	(3)	4	243	72	315	573	483	337	14	1,407
Wakayama	(3)	3	2	(3)	5	193	47	240	892	170	151	79	1,292
Tottori	(5)	—	—	(5)	—	198	—	198	1,095	220	—	—	1,315
Shimane	(3)	2	—	(3)	2	189	—	189	609	346	—	—	955
Okayama	(5)	1	1	(5)	2	296	35	331	1,679	190	—	228	2,097
Hiroshima	(7)	7	2	(7)	9	536	53	589	3,191	915	—	264	4,370
Yamaguchi	(5)	6	—	(5)	6	351	—	351	1,841	476	—	—	2,317
Tokushima	(6)	—	—	(6)	—	191	—	191	948	194	—	—	1,142
Kagawa	(3)	1	—	(3)	1	113	—	113	817	192	—	—	1,009
Ehime	(4)	1	2	(4)	3	250	63	313	1,080	190	775	34	2,079
Kochi	(3)	1	—	(3)	1	150	—	150	559	358	—	—	917
Fukuoka	(8)	5	10	(8)	15	903	283	1,191	7,236	946	3,701	375	12,308
Saga	(3)	—	—	(3)	—	111	—	111	544	141	—	—	685
Nagasaki	(6)	1	4	(6)	5	271	94	365	1,276	397	127	406	3,205
Kumamoto	(7)	2	1	(7)	3	324	32	356	2,572	434	735	18	3,809
Oita	(3)	—	1	(3)	1	99	22	121	679	185	—	87	951
Miyazaki	(3)	1	—	(3)	1	195	—	195	841	167	—	—	1,008
Kagoshima	(5)	5	1	(5)	6	461	17	478	2,349	416	449	—	3,214
Total	(245)	126	265	(245)	391	17,606	11,088	28,694	115,533	18,060	117,071	20,317	271,481

Table 9

Number of Institutions, Teachers and Students in Higher Education. (Prefecture)

Research & Publications Bureau
as of July 15. 1949

	New System Universities										Total
	Number of Schools			Number of Teachers			Number of Students				
	Natio- nal & Public	Pri- vate	Total	Natio- nal & Public	Private	Total	National & Public		Private		
							Male	Female	Male	Fe- male	
Hokkaido	5	—	5	118	—	118	1,948	26	—	—	1,974
Aomori	1	—	1	4	—	4	264	18	—	—	282
Iwate	1	—	1	81	—	81	509	33	—	—	542
Miyagi	1	3	4	9	87	96	1,290	40	340	72	1,742
Akita	1	—	1	33	—	33	200	7	—	—	207
Yamagata	1	—	1	53	—	53	641	87	—	—	728
Fukushima	1	—	1	41	—	41	415	40	—	—	455
Ibaragi	1	1	2	59	49	108	585	50	66	2	703
Tochigi	1	—	1	81	—	81	378	33	—	—	411
Gumma	1	—	1	1	—	1	386	31	—	—	417
Saitama	1	—	1	130	—	130	315	20	—	—	335
Chiba	1	2	3	6	46	52	599	50	60	98	807
Tokyo	11	50	61	696	4,581	5,277	5,235	506	57,121	3,165	66,027
Kanagawa	2	4	6	148	277	425	961	44	1,022	64	2,091
Niigata	1	—	1	52	—	52	828	117	—	—	945
Toyama	1	—	1	91	—	91	533	104	—	—	637
Ishikawa	1	—	1	66	—	66	779	38	—	—	817
Fukui	1	—	1	76	—	76	178	54	—	—	232
Yamanashi	1	—	1	52	—	52	309	71	—	—	380
Nagano	1	—	1	4	—	4	802	52	—	—	854
Gifu	3	—	3	105	—	105	679	63	—	—	739
Shizuoka	1	—	1	169	—	169	642	63	—	—	705
Aichi	4	5	9	27	177	204	1,669	70	1,259	65	3,063
Mie	1	—	1	5	—	5	407	32	—	—	439
Shiga	1	—	1	22	—	22	285	35	—	—	320
Kyoto	4	10	14	88	631	719	2,093	114	8,129	386	10,722
Osaka	6	6	12	370	332	702	2,762	326	8,057	163	11,308
Hyogo	5	4	9	140	265	405	2,267	59	2,410	557	5,293
Nara	2	1	3	26	82	108	175	174	97	6	452
Wakayama	1	1	2	113	35	148	315	3	142	1	461
Tottori	1	—	1	1	—	1	254	40	—	—	294
Shimane	1	—	1	4	—	4	277	77	—	—	354
Okayama	1	1	2	83	17	100	767	68	—	29	864
Hiroshima	1	1	2	10	18	28	1,140	84	—	40	1,264
Yamaguchi	1	—	1	5	—	5	683	46	—	—	729
Tokushima	1	—	1	3	—	3	472	67	—	—	539
Kagawa	1	—	1	23	—	23	414	74	—	—	488
Ehime	2	1	3	244	53	297	617	60	479	1	1,157
Kochi	2	—	2	133	—	133	320	56	—	—	376
Fukuoka	4	2	6	136	57	193	1,747	175	545	6	2,473
Saga	1	—	1	60	—	60	364	33	—	—	397
Nagasaki	1	—	1	52	—	52	622	49	—	—	671
Kumamoto	2	—	2	94	—	94	1,020	155	—	—	1,175
Oita	1	—	1	27	—	27	376	68	—	—	444
Miyazaki	1	—	1	33	—	33	573	36	—	—	609
Kagoshima	2	—	2	29	—	29	913	33	—	—	946
Total	86	92	178	3,803	6,707	10,510	39,005	3,481	79,737	4,655	126,868

Engi- neering	National	898	—	373	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	1,271	—	—
	Public	106,797	75	70	—	—	—	—	31,584	36	896	124	7	139,347	235	—
	Private	13,275	2	61	—	—	—	—	12,550	3	17	—	7	25,910	5	—
	Total	120,970	77	504	—	—	—	—	44,134	39	913	124	—	166,528	240	—
Com- merce	Public	73,045	9,645	183	351	—	—	—	21,965	1,449	75	66	—	95,268	11,511	—
	Private	14,892	3,910	105	1,569	—	115	—	7,864	275	—	—	—	22,861	5,869	—
	Total	87,937	13,555	288	1,920	—	115	—	29,829	1,724	75	66	—	118,129	17,380	—
Home Arts	National	—	36	—	—	—	—	—	—	186	—	—	—	—	222	—
	Public	52	44,706	75	1,412	—	—	20	106	29,702	—	6,085	—	58	233	81,983
	Private	—	18,789	—	7,109	—	—	122	—	675	—	121	—	132	—	26,948
	Total	52	63,531	75	8,521	—	—	142	106	30,563	—	6,206	—	190	233	109,153
Foreign language	Public	58	42	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	30	6	—	88	48	—
	Private	52	5	16	39	40	6	—	—	—	—	—	—	108	50	—
	Total	110	47	16	39	40	6	—	—	—	30	6	—	196	98	—
Fine Arts	Public	106	16	—	—	16	14	14	55	—	—	—	—	177	30	—
	Private	8	—	—	22	—	—	—	—	—	16	—	—	24	22	—
	Total	114	16	—	22	16	14	14	55	—	16	—	—	201	52	—
Music	Public	24	80	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	24	80	—
	Private	123	174	4	1	17	69	69	—	—	—	—	—	144	244	—
	Total	147	254	4	1	17	69	69	—	—	—	—	—	168	324	—
Others	Public	177	30	44	60	—	—	—	48	—	—	—	—	269	90	—
	Private	519	7	63	85	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	—	532	92	—
	Total	696	37	57	145	—	—	—	48	—	—	—	—	801	182	—

Table 8 .

Number of Pupils of Upper Secondary Schools by Course and Subject

as of April 30, 1949, Research & Publications Bureau

Item	Full-Time						Part-Time						Total	
	Regular course		Special course		Graduate c'se		Regular course		Special course		Graduate c'se			
	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Total	National	1,871	1,060	373	—	—	487	257	—	—	—	—	2,731	1,317
	public	663,287	376,185	858	3,707	57	228,646	66,712	2,193	6,576	—	58	895,041	453,321
	Private	109,683	108,524	276	11,120	57	39,017	2,756	139	121	8	132	149,180	123,007
	Total	774,841	485,769	1,507	14,827	114	268,150	69,725	2,332	6,697	8	190	1,046,952	577,645
General course	National	940	1,024	—	—	—	127	35	—	—	—	—	1,067	1,059
	Public	380,630	315,617	385	1,542	—	122,595	27,766	204	123	—	—	503,814	345,097
	Private	79,009	85,633	—	2,295	—	18,530	1,767	106	—	1	—	97,646	89,737
	Total	460,579	402,274	385	3,837	—	141,252	29,568	310	123	1	—	602,527	435,893
Agriculture	National	33	—	—	—	—	360	36	—	—	—	—	393	36
	Public	96,995	5,954	101	342	29	51,748	7,692	761	172	—	—	149,634	14,160
	Private	1,712	4	77	—	—	78	36	—	—	—	—	1,862	40
	Total	98,740	5,958	178	342	29	52,181	7,746	761	172	—	—	151,889	14,236
Marine Products	Public	5,403	20	—	—	—	545	67	227	—	—	—	6,187	87
	Private	93	—	—	—	12	—	—	—	—	—	—	93	—
	Total	5,496	20	—	—	12	545	67	227	—	—	—	6,280	87

Gifu	12	10	24	46	23	1,494	13,469	6,912	3,942	1,486	17,411	8,398	1,524,812	1.8
Shizuoka	41	2	45	88	8	2,249	20,894	14,171	4,941	674	25,835	14,845	2,407,102	1.7
Aichi	50	9	34	93	22	3,127	29,802	18,594	8,269	1,014	38,071	19,608	3,226,116	1.8
Mie	3	4	16	23	11	1,169	12,123	7,494	3,318	525	15,441	8,019	1,451,100	1.6
Shiga	6	4	6	16	1	701	7,745	4,758	1,357	473	9,102	5,231	872,775	1.6
Kyoto	33	7	21	61	23	2,337	20,882	14,624	7,051	1,158	27,933	15,782	1,784,753	2.4
Osaka	90	9	—	152	17	4,863	37,363	25,386	14,443	1,172	51,806	26,558	3,515,225	2.2
Hyogo	87	18	10	23	62	3,574	30,713	21,503	7,374	1,827	38,087	23,330	3,156,888	1.9
Nara	11	1	12	24	7	870	7,325	5,815	1,365	482	8,690	6,297	778,677	1.9
Wakayama	8	—	16	24	3	880	9,974	6,235	1,597	105	11,571	6,340	979,982	1.8
To tori	4	3	9	16	18	797	7,526	3,941	1,110	391	8,636	4,332	592,863	2.2
Shimane	22	2	5	29	13	1,000	8,029	4,797	1,112	397	9,141	5,194	903,576	1.6
Okayama	31	11	41	83	32	2,384	17,460	15,958	5,770	5,782	23,230	21,740	1,650,285	2.7
Hiroshima	37	10	36	83	57	2,721	22,462	16,309	8,227	2,746	30,689	19,055	2,045,923	2.4
Yamaguchi	31	4	31	66	46	2,064	17,197	11,270	2,483	1,445	19,680	12,715	1,505,532	2.2
Tokushima	8	—	19	27	34	1,125	8,145	6,025	1,576	2,538	9,721	8,563	869,290	2.1
Kagawa	16	1	19	36	35	1,451	9,979	7,156	4,418	1,175	14,397	8,331	934,123	2.4
Ehime	27	13	29	69	34	1,727	13,349	8,735	7,823	2,135	21,172	10,870	1,481,106	1.9
Kochi	15	3	15	33	17	871	6,436	4,689	1,595	966	8,031	5,655	866,385	1.6
Fukuoka	59	2	52	113	3	3,655	35,232	19,547	10,151	1,826	45,433	21,373	3,312,577	2.0
Saga	6	—	16	22	—	917	9,738	5,470	1,038	466	10,776	5,936	931,336	1.8
Nagasaki	25	5	8	38	1	1,176	12,399	6,947	1,969	382	14,368	7,329	1,565,558	1.4
Kumamoto	17	1	25	43	5	1,443	16,232	8,166	1,419	621	17,651	8,787	1,786,058	1.5
Oita	14	—	18	32	25	1,615	14,108	9,567	2,483	2,183	16,591	11,750	1,245,689	2.3
Miyazaki	1	—	13	14	13	745	9,281	4,965	2,273	659	11,554	5,624	1,052,483	1.6
Kagoshima	34	31	17	82	6	2,090	17,670	9,922	6,410	3,912	24,080	13,834	1,766,514	2.1
Total	1,425	261	1,249	2,935	1,245	93,761	776,462	501,033	270,490	76,612	1,046,952	577,645	80,216,896	2.0

Table 7

Number of Schools, Teachers and Pupils in Upper Secondary Schools, by Prefecture

as of April 30, 1949, Research & Publications Bureau

	Number of Schools			Number of Branch Schools	Number of Teachers	Number of Pupils						Prefectural Population	Percentage of Pupils to Prefectural Population	
	Full Time	Part Time	Co-ll-ocational			Total	Full-Time		Part-Time		Total			
							Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Hokkaido	74	10	52	136	67	4,116	35,701	19,765	14,598	2,159	50,299	21,924	4,021,050	1.8
Aomori	22	5	20	47	28	1,260	9,304	5,751	4,153	906	13,457	6,657	1,218,325	1.7
Iwate	13	7	24	44	49	1,243	10,209	7,017	5,439	1,133	15,648	8,150	1,294,203	1.8
Miyagi	28	6	35	69	75	2,404	14,848	11,351	8,498	3,235	23,346	14,586	1,596,307	2.4
Akita	18	1	19	38	79	1,681	9,443	6,214	8,207	2,747	17,650	8,961	1,283,710	2.1
Yamagata	16	18	27	61	75	2,044	10,658	8,707	12,813	5,186	23,471	13,895	1,346,492	2.8
Fukushima	37	18	20	75	56	2,348	17,554	10,866	5,879	2,204	23,433	13,070	2,026,482	1.8
Ibaragi	26	—	31	57	2	1,477	15,361	9,940	1,825	364	17,186	10,304	2,044,578	1.3
Tochigi	29	—	16	45	12	1,318	13,825	9,311	2,009	289	15,834	9,600	1,557,860	1.6
Gumma	16	2	36	54	6	1,607	14,776	10,602	5,785	1,522	20,561	12,124	1,608,894	2.0
Saitama	36	3	21	60	17	1,741	14,323	8,588	5,537	1,388	19,860	9,976	2,132,221	1.4
Chiba	45	5	31	81	3	1,871	16,311	10,742	2,168	901	18,479	11,643	2,140,511	1.4
Tokyo	201	22	148	371	22	10,987	74,673	51,834	41,415	7,024	116,088	58,858	5,417,871	3.0
Kanagawa	82	4	24	110	1	2,929	22,717	17,405	8,361	783	31,078	18,188	2,317,551	2.1
Niigata	25	6	47	78	74	2,824	18,419	9,014	10,793	2,032	29,212	11,046	2,435,451	1.7
Toyama	10	1	15	26	14	1,052	10,593	4,762	1,699	882	12,292	5,644	998,349	1.8
Ishikawa	10	2	14	26	20	1,083	9,252	4,305	2,186	531	11,438	4,836	941,772	1.7
Fukui	7	1	7	15	12	739	7,062	3,750	1,204	477	8,266	4,227	733,374	1.7
Yamanashi	15	—	12	27	17	1,029	9,164	5,325	3,120	734	12,284	6,059	815,485	2.2
Nagano	27	—	52	79	100	2,913	26,686	16,828	11,287	5,575	37,973	22,403	2,079,682	2.9

Table 6

Number of Pupils per Class & per Teacher
in Public Secondary Schools

as of April 30, 1949

Research & Publication Bureau

	Per Class	Per Teacher		Per Class	Per Teacher
Hokkaido	45,8	30,3	Shiga	43,0	27,4
Aomori	44,0	31,9	Kyoto	44,9	28,3
Iwate	43,8	25,0	Osaka	49,0	30,4
Miyagi	47,8	29,3	Hyogo	43,8	24,3
Akita	46,6	30,2	Nara	39,6	27,7
Yamagata	43,7	28,1	Wakayama	41,8	24,3
Fukushima	46,6	30,3	Tottori	42,2	23,8
Ibaragi	45,9	28,2	Simane	40,3	23,9
Tochigi	48,3	31,5	Okayama	43,9	27,5
Gumma	45,1	27,1	Hiroshima	39,3	29,0
Saitama	43,1	25,7	Yamaguchi	41,1	25,9
Chiba	41,7	24,5	Tokushima	43,3	28,8
Tokyo	48,2	32,8	Kagawa	42,4	28,4
Kanagawa	45,0	30,4	Ehime	43,3	27,7
Niigata	46,2	30,6	Kochi	38,4	23,3
Toyama	49,0	29,2	Fukuoka	46,4	27,1
Ishikawa	40,1	26,7	Saga	45,7	26,8
Fukui	39,5	28,8	Nagasaki	44,6	29,6
Yamanashi	43,7	26,4	Kumamoto	44,5	27,2
Nagano	42,0	25,2	Oita	44,6	26,5
Gifu	45,2	30,8	Miyazaki	43,3	28,6
Shizuoka	47,2	31,5	Kagoshima	48,3	28,8
Aichi	50,7	30,0			
Mie	44,7	28,0	Average	44,8	28,2

Table 5

Number of Schools, Teachers and Pupils in Lower Secondary
Schools, by Prefecture

as of April 30, 1949
Research & Publications Bureau

	Number of Schools			Number of Teachers			Number of Pupils					
	Natio- nal & Public	Pri- vate	Total	Natio- nal & Public	Pri- vate	Total	National & Public		Private		Total	
							Male	Female	Male	Female	Male	Female
Hokkaido	862	14	876	9,742	285	10,027	137,427	127,366	1,676	4,910	139,103	132,276
Aomori	274	9	283	2,813	149	2,962	43,286	39,311	858	3,000	44,144	42,311
Iwate	282	6	288	3,780	85	3,865	46,713	44,159	772	1,256	47,485	45,415
Miyagi	231	10	241	3,847	246	4,093	59,931	54,115	1,134	2,829	58,065	56,944
Akita	242	2	244	3,186	36	3,222	48,997	46,165	—	658	48,997	46,823
Yamagata	258	3	261	3,551	44	3,595	48,942	47,103	—	606	48,942	47,709
Fukushima	388	4	392	4,810	50	4,860	72,738	70,909	339	368	73,077	71,277
Ibaragi	361	7	368	4,879	115	4,994	68,414	66,656	890	942	69,304	67,598
Tochigi	195	7	202	3,358	127	3,485	53,430	51,375	722	1,826	54,152	53,201
Gumma	229	6	235	3,932	101	4,033	53,917	51,835	274	1,352	54,191	53,187
Saitama	362	6	368	5,438	80	5,518	67,297	65,426	167	719	67,464	66,145
Chiba	341	14	355	5,554	287	5,841	65,302	62,343	1,565	4,883	66,867	67,226
Tokyo	363	239	602	6,906	5,258	12,164	114,804	99,556	43,041	51,476	157,845	151,032
Kanagawa	191	50	241	3,792	1,109	4,901	59,403	53,665	7,148	11,334	66,551	64,999
Niigata	415	9	424	5,832	135	5,967	87,207	84,363	558	1,395	87,815	85,758
Toyama	103	2	105	2,209	30	2,239	32,724	31,411	—	231	32,724	31,642
Ishikawa	222	4	226	2,216	79	2,295	29,143	27,174	48	1,252	29,191	28,426
Fukui	150	3	153	1,754	74	1,828	23,657	22,911	459	372	24,116	23,283
Yamanashi	183	2	185	2,149	46	2,195	29,121	27,382	—	1,092	29,121	28,474
Nagano	410	1	411	5,564	24	5,588	70,473	68,494	384	48	70,857	68,542
Gifu	273	7	280	3,430	90	3,520	51,647	50,007	309	538	51,956	50,545
Sizuoka	324	29	353	4,952	319	5,271	81,408	73,127	1,773	9,656	83,181	82,783
Aichi	290	37	327	6,650	786	7,436	98,808	94,166	6,447	7,656	105,255	101,822
Mie	180	3	183	3,394	45	3,439	47,733	46,763	531	190	48,264	46,953
Shiga	78	2	80	2,045	44	2,089	27,787	27,058	212	109	27,999	27,167
Kyoto	126	30	156	3,491	610	4,101	50,736	45,596	3,462	6,468	54,198	52,064
Osaka	236	78	314	5,451	1,613	7,064	86,354	74,247	13,949	21,465	100,303	95,712
Hyogo	358	38	396	7,263	767	8,030	90,440	83,620	4,929	8,168	95,369	91,788
Nara	142	6	148	1,764	156	1,920	23,351	22,952	1,542	1,181	24,893	24,133
Wakayama	186	2	188	2,607	25	2,632	31,454	30,994	130	148	31,584	31,142
Tottori	102	—	102	1,660	—	1,660	19,802	19,306	—	—	19,802	19,306
Shimane	255	—	255	2,504	—	2,504	30,007	29,103	—	—	30,007	29,103
Okayama	239	14	253	3,604	234	3,838	49,679	46,364	1,457	3,289	51,136	49,653
Hiroshima	226	31	257	4,135	677	4,812	60,805	56,122	4,141	7,489	64,946	63,611
Yamaguchi	237	15	252	3,456	312	3,768	46,453	42,306	1,118	3,509	47,571	45,815
Tokushima	147	2	149	2,058	40	2,098	29,767	28,695	81	125	29,848	28,820
Kagawa	176	7	183	2,096	165	2,261	30,098	28,549	528	1,959	30,626	30,508
Ehime	279	11	290	3,524	180	3,704	48,991	46,366	1,034	2,817	50,025	49,183
Kochi	194	3	197	2,112	93	2,205	24,752	23,857	898	1,135	25,650	24,992
Fukuoka	275	25	300	7,170	498	7,668	100,813	91,531	2,545	7,398	103,358	98,929
Saga	132	4	136	2,286	61	2,347	31,079	29,792	672	320	31,751	30,112
Nagasaki	247	15	212	3,366	308	3,674	50,613	46,983	1,760	3,502	52,373	50,485
Kumamoto	273	11	284	4,187	257	4,444	58,561	53,812	940	3,847	59,501	57,659
Oita	253	9	262	3,106	102	3,208	40,999	39,793	115	856	41,114	40,649
Miyazaki	122	2	124	2,570	35	2,605	36,420	35,641	394	201	36,814	35,842
Kagoshima	225	3	228	4,443	45	4,488	64,899	62,487	9	165	64,908	62,652
Total	11,637	782	12,419	178,636	15,822	194,458	2,523,432	2,370,956	109,011	182,740	2,632,443	2,553,696

Table 4

Number of Pupils per Class & per Teacher in Public
Elementary School

as of April 30, 1949

Research & Publications Bureau

	Per. Class	Per Teacher		Per Class	Per Teacher
Hokkaido	47,9	42,9	Shiga	41,2	33,6
Aomori	44,6	36,6	Kyoto	42,2	34,5
Iwate	46,3	32,6	Osaka	47,2	37,9
Miyagi	48,7	38,2	Hyogo	46,0	37,8
Akita	46,3	39,0	Nara	41,8	36,4
Yamagata	43,9	34,0	Wakayama	36,2	31,3
Fukushima	47,0	38,7	Tottori	36,6	26,2
Ibaragi	46,9	37,2	Shimane	39,1	30,1
Tochigi	46,4	37,8	Okayama	41,3	33,8
Gumma	45,9	36,3	Hiroshima	40,4	33,9
Saitama	45,6	36,5	Yamaguchi	42,1	34,1
Chiba	44,3	35,3	Tokushima	42,1	34,7
Tokyo	49,3	39,9	Kagawa	43,1	35,6
Kanagawa	47,6	40,3	Ehime	37,1	34,4
Niigata	44,6	38,1	Kochi	35,6	31,0
Toyama	42,0	34,9	Fukuoka	46,6	35,6
Ishikawa	37,6	36,7	Saga	45,7	39,6
Fukui	38,3	33,7	Nagasaki	44,3	38,1
Yamanashi	43,5	35,1	Kumamoto	41,8	36,2
Nagano	42,2	35,7	Oita	41,6	32,1
Gifu	41,9	37,2	Miyazaki	39,7	33,6
Shizuoka	50,2	38,5	Kagoshima	46,3	37,4
Aichi	49,1	38,5			
Mie	39,7	32,6	Average	44,4	36,4

Table 3

Number of Schools, Teachers, and Pupils in Elementary Schools, by Prefecture
as of April 30, 1949
Research & Publications Bureau

	Number of Schools			Number of Teachers			Number of pupils					
	Natio- nal & Public	Pri- vate	Total	Natio- nal & Public	Pri- vate	Total	National & Public		Private		Total	
							Male	Female	Male	Fema- le	Male	Female
Hokkaido	1,997	—	1,997	14,577	—	14,577	307,168	300,773	—	—	307,168	300,773
Aomori	476	—	476	5,026	—	5,026	92,132	89,877	—	—	92,132	89,877
Iwate	509	3	512	5,843	51	5,894	96,322	93,247	1,037	1,039	97,359	94,286
Miyagi	295	—	295	6,250	—	6,250	120,606	116,779	—	—	120,606	116,779
Akita	362	—	362	4,830	—	4,880	96,300	93,773	—	—	96,300	93,773
Yamagata	345	—	345	5,782	—	5,782	98,672	96,954	—	—	98,672	96,954
Fukushima	512	2	514	7,830	11	7,841	152,625	149,596	85	127	152,710	149,693
Ibaragi	533	2	535	7,800	42	7,842	146,602	142,744	232	203	146,834	142,947
Tochigi	434	2	436	5,977	16	5,993	113,873	111,173	111	100	113,984	111,273
Gumma	271	—	271	6,326	—	6,326	116,060	113,297	—	—	116,060	113,297
Saitama	424	—	424	8,035	—	8,035	148,223	144,496	—	—	148,223	144,496
Chiba	445	1	446	8,060	8	8,068	143,019	141,129	171	164	143,190	141,293
Tokyo	692	46	738	16,519	566	17,085	332,257	323,653	5,990	6,629	338,247	330,282
Kanagawa	319	13	332	7,468	140	7,608	153,091	147,475	787	1,863	153,878	149,338
Niigata	818	1	819	9,233	10	9,243	176,883	172,837	56	60	176,939	172,897
Toyama	320	—	320	3,813	—	3,813	66,981	66,241	—	—	66,981	65,241
Ishikawa	371	—	371	4,034	—	4,034	61,943	61,566	—	—	61,943	60,566
Fukui	245	—	245	2,908	—	2,908	49,594	47,799	—	—	49,594	47,799
Yamanashi	225	—	225	3,500	—	3,500	61,867	60,368	—	—	61,867	60,368
Nagano	445	—	445	8,136	—	8,136	146,739	142,907	—	—	146,739	142,907
Gifu	473	3	476	5,819	51	5,870	107,396	104,657	727	682	108,123	105,339
Shizuoka	506	1	507	8,833	9	8,842	171,848	167,643	14	24	171,862	167,667
Aichi	664	10	674	11,439	104	11,543	222,894	216,436	1,479	1,382	224,373	217,818
Mie	435	2	437	6,008	20	6,028	98,836	96,507	244	343	99,080	96,850
Shiga	210	1	211	3,349	7	3,356	57,259	54,974	45	40	57,304	55,014
Kyoto	377	3	380	6,480	15	6,495	113,136	110,011	46	48	113,182	110,059
Osaka	485	30	515	11,351	272	11,623	217,540	211,570	4,703	4,706	222,243	216,276
Hyogo	632	5	637	10,723	44	10,767	203,970	199,805	291	497	204,261	200,302
Nara	214	1	315	2,716	18	2,734	48,649	48,120	324	288	48,973	48,408
Wakayama	358	3	361	4,092	7	4,099	64,890	63,153	45	47	64,935	63,230
Tottori	212	—	212	2,980	—	2,980	39,080	38,535	—	—	39,080	38,585
Shimane	361	—	361	4,004	—	4,004	61,486	59,594	—	—	61,486	59,594
Okayama	514	4	518	6,230	44	6,274	106,466	103,103	763	713	107,229	103,816
Hiroshima	670	9	679	7,912	41	7,953	135,748	131,360	345	504	136,093	131,864
Yamaguchi	395	4	399	5,833	75	5,908	100,771	97,864	1,192	1,112	101,963	98,976
Tokushima	297	—	297	3,558	—	3,558	61,826	60,843	—	—	61,826	60,843
Kagawa	223	—	223	3,534	—	3,534	63,335	61,541	—	—	63,335	61,541
Ehime	444	2	446	6,034	24	6,058	104,035	101,892	387	351	104,422	102,243
Kochi	416	—	416	3,546	—	3,546	55,199	53,134	—	—	55,199	53,134
Fukuoka	577	10	587	12,557	91	12,648	225,638	219,980	1,720	1,437	227,358	221,417
Saga	177	1	178	3,353	8	3,361	66,670	65,231	79	97	66,749	65,323
Nagasaki	367	1	368	5,855	7	5,862	111,196	108,991	42	—	111,238	108,991
Kumamoto	467	—	497	6,894	—	6,894	126,214	123,201	—	—	126,214	123,201
Oita	363	2	365	5,323	18	5,341	86,038	83,555	151	76	86,189	83,631
Miyazaki	274	1	275	4,581	4	4,585	77,475	75,814	13	17	77,488	75,831
Kagoshima	511	—	511	7,172	—	7,172	135,213	132,066	—	—	135,213	132,066
Total	20,790	163	20,953	302,173	1,703	303,876	5,543,765	5,404,304	21,279	22,579	5,565,044	5,426,888

Table 2 Statistics of Kindergartens and Nurseries, by Prefecture

Kindergatens: as of April 30. 1949

Nurseries: as of January 1. 1949

Research and Publications Bureau

	Kindergartens									Nurs.ries		
	Number of Kindergartens			Number of Teachers			Number of Children			Num-ber of Nur-series	Num-ber of Staff	Num-ber of Child-ren
	Natio-nal & Public	Pri-vate	Total	Natio-nal & Public	Pri-vate	Total	National & Public	Private	Total			
Hokkaido	1	30	31	6	159	165	175	4,244	4,419	47	149	4,180
Aomori	4	11	15	16	46	61	429	991	1,420	24	68	1,623
Iwate	2	16	18	11	75	86	297	2,042	2,339	28	96	1,938
Miyagi	3	8	11	16	42	58	416	824	1,240	35	103	3,136
Akita	1	12	13	4	72	76	103	2,018	2,121	22	79	2,640
Yamagata	1	6	7	3	30	33	90	666	756	24	77	2,693
Fukushima	11	15	26	48	84	132	1,648	2,131	3,779	28	75	3,073
Ibaragi	8	14	22	37	68	105	1,181	1,438	8,619	21	54	2,023
Tochigi	1	11	12	2	67	69	38	1,842	1,880	11	27	1,057
Gumma	13	11	24	85	55	140	3,194	1,518	4,712	27	95	2,761
Saitama	4	29	33	17	129	146	691	2,960	3,651	20	85	2,096
Chiba	16	9	25	80	38	118	3,190	1,299	4,489	39	144	3,258
Tokyo	43	179	222	196	873	1,069	5,521	17,128	22,649	120	508	11,149
Kanagawa	3	45	48	16	198	214	677	4,377	5,054	69	232	7,434
Niigata	5	12	17	33	61	94	1,324	1,662	2,986	99	308	8,840
Toyama	3	5	8	16	23	39	305	670	975	32	163	5,434
Ishikawa	7	27	34	38	144	182	1,135	3,405	4,540	53	140	4,300
Fukui	26	10	36	85	51	136	2,382	1,784	4,166	23	59	1,850
Yamanashi	1	12	13	4	54	58	110	1,203	1,313	24	102	2,548
Nagano	2	16	18	16	72	88	393	1,439	1,832	69	223	6,639
Gifu	13	13	26	54	67	121	1,635	2,093	3,728	62	184	7,197
Shizuoka	14	43	57	70	225	295	2,830	6,371	9,201	66	206	7,621
Aichi	28	32	60	176	156	332	5,818	3,773	9,591	143	458	15,194
Mie	24	11	35	123	46	169	4,391	1,301	5,692	39	93	2,514
Shiga	18	11	29	104	51	155	3,192	859	4,051	17	37	1,062
Kyoto	35	46	81	189	236	425	5,845	5,784	11,629	87	254	7,359
Osaka	59	61	120	319	309	628	11,326	7,932	19,258	97	271	6,780
Hyogo	135	61	196	565	263	828	16,023	5,673	21,696	113	321	8,521
Nara	12	10	22	80	41	121	2,402	930	3,332	37	99	2,849
Wakayama	8	11	19	39	53	92	1,099	1,570	2,669	22	58	1,769
Tottori	2	7	9	10	35	45	244	1,088	1,332	26	96	2,355
Shimane	13	3	16	71	17	88	2,165	588	2,753	45	135	2,882
Okayama	79	12	91	323	55	378	9,380	1,592	10,972	89	261	7,884
Hiroshima	18	27	45	86	125	211	2,333	3,524	5,857	96	128	8,977
Yamaguchi	7	16	23	30	71	101	1,041	1,752	2,793	115	331	10,499
Tokushima	102	2	104	348	9	357	9,466	217	9,683	34	58	2,287
Kagawa	29	12	41	22	42	164	4,224	1,052	5,276	41	105	3,802
Ehime	6	14	20	23	60	83	583	1,314	1,897	55	195	5,785
Kochi	1	3	4	5	12	17	—	313	313	48	147	5,000
Fukuoka	1	30	31	5	144	149	357	3,631	3,988	138	457	12,995
Saga	1	10	11	7	46	53	229	1,156	1,385	34	118	3,644
Nagasaki	8	12	20	27	67	94	888	1,634	2,522	30	68	2,041
Kumamoto	15	7	22	76	30	106	2,649	751	3,400	26	83	2,450
Oita	27	14	41	144	62	206	4,534	1,216	5,750	26	65	1,777
Miyazaki	—	16	16	—	60	60	—	1,709	1,709	11	23	754
Kagoshima	1	14	15	3	61	64	58	1,332	1,390	41	130	3,250
Total	811	976	1,787	3,727	4,684	8,411	116,011	112,796	228,807	2,353	7,168	215,920

Item		Number of School	Number of Teachers			Enrollments		
			Full Time	Part Time	Total	Male	Female	Total
Elementary Schools	Total	20,953	302,151	1,725	303,876	5,565,044	5,426,883	10,991,927
	National	86	1,440	78	1,518	21,929	20,303	42,232
	Public	20,704	299,231	1,424	300,655	5,521,836	5,384,001	10,905,837
	Private	103	1,480	223	1,703	21,279	22,579	43,858
Kindergartens	Total	1,787	7,169	1,242	8,411	114,877	113,930	228,807
	National	32	109	26	135	1,489	1,496	2,985
	Public	779	2,894	698	3,592	57,234	55,792	113,026
	Private	976	4,166	518	4,684	56,154	56,642	112,796
Special Education	Total	143	2,449	150	2,599	8,345	6,103	14,449
	National	2	72	22	94	244	119	363
	Public	132	2,304	118	2,422	7,823	5,808	13,631
	Private	9	73	10	83	279	176	455
Schools for the Blind	Total	70	990	104	1,094	2,883	1,513	4,396
	National	1	21	21	42	102	38	140
	Public	64	938	78	1,016	2,676	1,421	4,097
	Private	5	31	5	36	105	54	159
Schools for the Deaf	Total	72	1,453	45	1,498	5,398	4,566	9,964
	National	1	51	1	52	142	81	223
	Public	68	1,366	40	1,406	5,147	4,387	9,534
	Private	3	36	4	40	109	98	207
Nursing Schools	Private	1	6	1	7	65	65	89
Miscellaneous Schools	Total	3,402	14,587	11,309	25,896	79,806	368,608	448,414
	National	16	41	554	595	—	2,264	2,264
	Public	209	690	993	1,683	4,406	7,604	12,010
	Private	3,177	13,856	9,762	23,618	75,400	358,740	434,140

Remark: Among national schools in the column, “number of schools” given in parenthesis, are included respectively in New System Universities concerned as composite units, therefore they are excluded from total.

Table 1

Summary of School Education Statistics

Higher Education as of July 15, 1949
Primary & Secondary Education as of April 30, 1949
Research and Publications Bureau

Item		Number of School	Number of Teachers			Enrollments		
			Full Time	Part Time	Total	Male	Female	Total
Grand-total of Schools		42,215	609,772	58,509	668,281	9,798,810	9,094,081	18,892,891
Higher Education	Total	569	25,298	13,906	39,204	351,336	47,013	398,349
	National	(245)90	14,514	3,060	17,574	137,449	15,994	153,443
	Public	122	2,413	1,422	3,835	17,035	5,547	22,636
	Private	357	8,371	9,424	17,795	196,798	25,472	222,270
Old System Universities	Total	51	4,402	1,674	6,076	82,786	1,246	84,032
	National	(23)1	3,120	418	3,538	40,052	614	40,666
	Public	12	308	67	375	2,054	64	2,118
	Private	38	974	1,189	2,163	40,680	568	41,248
New System Universities	Total	178	6,465	4,045	10,510	118,732	8,136	126,868
	National	68	1,856	1,072	2,928	35,608	3,079	38,687
	Public	18	627	248	875	3,397	402	3,799
	Private	92	3,982	2,725	6,707	79,727	4,655	84,382
Old System High Schools	Total	11	961	307	1,268	9,328	29	9,357
	National	(28)—	866	181	1,047	7,809	10	7,819
	Public	5	52	15	67	715	5	720
	Private	6	43	111	154	804	14	818
Preparatory Departments of Old System Universities	Total	41	479	498	977	8,071	487	8,558
	National	(3)1	114	20	134	1,039	7	1,043
	Public	14	155	102	257	1,518	122	1,640
	Private	26	210	376	586	5,514	361	5,875
Colleges	Total	270	7,519	6,912	14,431	107,125	25,702	132,827
	National	(82)2	3,086	899	3,985	27,647	874	28,521
	Public	73	1,271	990	2,261	9,405	4,954	14,359
	Private	195	3,162	5,023	8,185	70,073	19,874	89,947
National Teacher Training Institutions	Total	(109)18	5,472	470	5,942	25,294	11,413	36,707
	Higher- Normal	(9)—	548	132	680	3,674	1,112	4,786
	Normal	(55)—	4,087	197	4,284	17,065	8,913	25,978
	Youth- Normal	(45) 1	825	131	956	3,323	1,343	4,666
	(national) Miscella- neous	17	12	10	22	1,232	45	1,277
Secondary Education	Total	15,361	258,118	30,177	288,295	3,679,401	3,131,544	6,810,945
	National	118	1,361	619	1,980	19,094	15,362	34,456
	Public	13,594	235,498	14,974	250,472	3,402,116	2,810,414	6,212,530
	Private	1,649	21,259	14,584	35,843	258,191	305,768	563,959
Upper Secondary Schools	Total	2,935	75,381	18,380	93,761	1,046,952	577,645	1,624,597
	National	22	254	129	383	2,731	1,317	4,048
	Public	2,047	63,089	10,277	73,366	895,041	453,321	1,348,362
	Private	866	12,038	7,974	20,012	149,180	123,007	272,187
Old System Secondary Schools	Total	7	10	66	76	6	203	209
	National	1	2	23	25	—	37	37
	Public	5	5	37	42	6	145	151
	Private	1	3	6	9	—	21	21
Lower Secondary Schools	Total	12,419	182,727	11,731	194,458	2,632,443	2,553,696	5,186,139
	National	95	1,105	467	1,572	16,363	14,008	30,371
	Public	11,542	172,404	4,660	177,064	2,507,069	2,356,948	4,864,017
	Private	782	9,218	6,604	15,822	109,011	182,740	291,751
Elemetary and Infantile Education	Total	22,740	309,320	2,967	312,287	5,679,921	5,540,813	11,220,734
	National	118	1,549	104	1,653	23,418	21,799	45,217
	Public	21,483	302,125	2,122	304,247	5,579,070	5,439,793	11,018,863
	Private	1,139	5,646	741	6,387	77,433	79,221	156,654

The life of teachers, students, and pupils has been in greatest difficulties midst the economical hardships in the post-war Japan. No matter how vigorous might be the interest in, and needs for, learning and study, these efforts have been too apt to be unavoidably lost. Unless there be come substantial measures taken so that their efforts may be backed by helps and encouragement, there is a danger that the new system for the democratization of education, and various progressive projects, and the equal opportunities for education will end in a mere idealistic plan or a "Painted cake".

The new community which Japan is now striving to establish will be possible only when there are opportunities given for the actual progress and advancement of the teachers, scholars, and young people, who firmly believe in democratic life and in the cause of advancement and progress thereof. Nothing will be farther from democratic education than a spell of merely beautiful lectures or of minutest schedules good for nothing. Our conclusion is that there should be established some sure method of giving the teachers, students, and pupils in their hand-to-mouth life, due amount of economic aids which will answer for their sincere efforts for human progress.

In each and every field of the current education, the extreme poverty of its financial resources is weighing heavily for its future and is blocking its substantial progress. If seen from its physical situations, nothing would compare with the inferiority of the 6-3 compulsory education's school buildings, facilities, and equipment as well as those of the new-system university inferiority so great as is in fact almost nipping of the buds of the new education. The same thing may be stated about the facilities for social education. As to the human resources the training of teachers and students of science and culture may be said to be in a badly low condition. Moreover, it must be admitted that the new education, which demands that the first thing for the student and the pupil to do is to learn and study independently, does require greater expenses than the old one in terms of the teaching materials, implements and other auxiliary articles. The new education, it must be warned, is now in danger of being heavily handicapped for any substantial realization of its principles because of such financial destitution. Such unhappy phenomena as the deterioration of young people, which should be attributed more directly to the evils of social usages than to the aforesaid low-toned educational practices, may be said to have their causes far back in the financial destitution of schools.

Thus what must here be recognized is that nothing would be of greater urgency for the education of Japan than to strengthen its financial background, in ways as may be summarized below.

Firstly, it cannot be too much emphasized that facilities and equipment for the 6-3 compulsory education should have the first priority in budgetary completion.

Secondly, along with the execution of the local equalization fund system given birth to by the reformation of the tax system, there has arisen a problem of how to secure and complete the local educational finances. As was stated in Chapter IX, the abolition of the "Law of National Subsidy for Compulsory Education Expenses" made it of absolute necessity to resort to such sound measures as will maintain the minimum standard of the compulsory education. Therewith the Ministry of Education drafted for the Law for Securing Standard Compulsory Education Expenses, and has done its best so that the bill may be legislated and the compulsory education expenses secured. According, however, to sundry situations of things, the bill has not been carried so far as to be submitted to the Diet yet. But we firmly believe that nothing would be more urgent than to establish some appropriate measures to secure the compulsory education expenses.

Thirdly, another no less urgent problem is to secure the economic independence of the Boards of Education. As has already been stated, this new and epoch-making democratic organ for educational administration is financially dependent upon the local administrative organs, the result being that, in spite of its aiming at the democratization and independence of educational administration, along with the decentralization of general administration it is not functioning to its full capacity. In order to realize democratic development of national education, it will be of paramount importance to secure the financial independence of local educational administration and the substantial strengthening of the Boards of Education. It seems next to impossibility that, without resorting to some such measures as suggested, the completion of local educational finances will be realized before it is too late. There may be sundry problems in connection with this, but last but not least we shall have to record here several other urgent ones pertaining to measures of increasing financial helps for teachers, students and pupils in their researches and studies and learning.

language, we strongly demand the scholars' scientific researches and the whole-hearted creative activities through cooperation of poets, authors and other linguistic artists.

Chapter VIII. The Reform of Education Administration

With the reform of the object and contents of education, the administrative organization of education has made an epoch-making progress both at the center and localities. That is to say, upon the basic principles of democratization and decentralization of educational administration and establishment of independence of education, the central and local educational administration were entirely reformed. And now, as was stated above, we have the organizations of board of education in prefectures, five major cities and others, which are invested with various kinds of administrative power and we have also a new Ministry of Education which has cast of its characteristic as a controlling centralizing organ of former times to be a democratic organ for professional and technical helps for practical activities, that namely, is to say, a service center for researches and studies.

For the administration of the university and the private schools, some epoch-making legal measures are now being established or being drafted with a view to insuring their independency and advance of their efficient and reasonable management. The establishment of the "Private school Law", the drafting of the "University Control Bill" etc. are the new facts to be put on record as reforms of educational administration.

Still, there are some important problems left in the reform of educational administration to be solved in future.

The question of the scope of the unit of local educational administration to be newly set up besides the prefectural board of education is the most serious problem. And it must be the most important problem for reform of educational administration to find and establish an appropriate scale and sphere for the local educational administrative unit in terms of finance, education and administrative efficiency.

Furthermore, with the revision of tax system, the reform of the general local administrative unit is going to be such a serious problem, that some cities, towns and villages have to be amalgamated shortly. In connection with such a social situation, the problem of establishing the local educational unit urgently requires us to decide a concrete program and in detail. Furthermore, it must be kept in mind, as will be stated below, that in future the board of education will hold financial powers all in all, which is also one of the important problems in the reform of educational administration.

Chapter IX. Educational Finance

As has already been dilated upon, the post-war education has in its various fields undergone a thorough-going and progressive democratic reformation. With the firm establishment of the fundamental democratic ideals, steady progress has been made in realizing the principle of equal opportunity for education.

Side by side with such a brighter phase of the reformation, there towers before us a mountain of hardest nuts to be cracked, as has frequently been suggested. Of these the gravest is that of how to tide over or rather conquer the economic difficulties of financing the reformed education.

Education Mission. "it requires much money and cannot be accomplished overnight." However, so long as this problem is not solved, a series of policies which may be taken besides enactment of the Social Education Law will prove nothing but "a painted ricecake".

Chapter VI. Promotion of Science and Culture

After the War, when Japan's centralized administrative power has been excluded and the "freedom of learning" has been highly guaranteed, the independence of science and culture which was liable to be restricted by the then authority, has become firm.

The democratization of our scientific research system was taken up as the most important problem for the promotion not only of our scientific administration but of science. And the "Science Council of Japan," was established in Jan. 1947, by which the foundation for our new scientific system was firmly laid for the first time. Then also various measures of scientific and cultural encouragement and promotion have come to be devised.

The activities of scientific and cultural encouragement and promotion in this country, however, are still in their first stage, so to speak, and many problems are left for future activities. Especially the encouragement and promotion of scientific and cultural researches and the training of researchers are controlled by financial conditions at all times and they are left alone in a very unsatisfactory situation. Furthermore, we must urgently work out positive and concrete programs in regard to the matter of students, and educational personnel, and in regard to the positive concrete policies concerning people who are engaged in science and culture and who want to go abroad for study with a view to elevating our scientific and cultural standards through world wide interchange of information.

Chapter VII. Present Condition of Language Reform

It has been a long-pending question since the Meiji period, to overcome the inefficiency of linguistic life by simplifying the organization of characters, where, however, we see remarkable progress made after the termination of hostilities. That is to say, the problem of the Japanese language and characters, also influenced by the American Educational Mission recommendations, had come to attract general interest of the people, for which the Government brought to effect a series of the simplification programs of expression by characters such as the "limitation of Chinese characters", "institution of a new use of "kana" etc., and "Romaji education" in the elementary school and the lower secondary school, thereby developing the functions of the expression and use of language in social life to a higher efficiency. No final conclusions are, however, yet drawn as to what should be done with the national letter to be used lettering by the Japanese race. To this end, we must wait for the time to come when the matter will be determined by the general sentiment of the people after still many more scientific studies.

Also as to the reform of the Japanese language, we see only the status quo of the linguistic phenomena of the general public, which is marking time at the stage of characters alone, while almost no readjustment of language itself is yet under way. It may be said that from the standpoint of beauty, philology and society, today's spoken language of our people is in an extremely imperfect condition. The fundamental solution is that, being based on the consciousness and love of the people at large in regard to the Japanese

social beings but leaned either toward academic research or vocational and technical training, neglecting humanity under the rule of nationalism. In other words, the university under the new system has come to aim at the training of leaders of a democratic society provided with good knowledge and common sense, by integrating the development of general culture needed for social beings and that of professional knowledge and technique, under the fundamental policy of establishing the independency and autonomy of the university. Furthermore, the establishment of a national university in each prefecture and the extension of correspondence education were realized as a measure to practise equal opportunity of receiving education, and thus the door of university was opened wide to the general public.

However, the university still involves serious difficulty at present in its physical and human conditions for the constitution of university. As for the physical condition, the facilities and equipment for research work needed for the fulfilment of the intrinsic mission of university are too poor in general, and some of the universities cannot give full scope to the intrinsic functions of the university unless they take measures for improvement and enrichment without delay. As for the human condition, we cannot help admitting in many universities the extreme insufficiency of teaching staff who are competent enough to perform university education which was caused by the sudden increase of universities.

Chapter V. Progress of Social Education

On the value of social education in "a society which seeks the maximum development of human resources", people's recognition has greatly been deepened since the war. Freeing itself from the subsidiary position in school education, social education was recognized of its independent meaning side by side with school education and is now becoming a motor power of future reconstruction of Japan.

Especially, the establishment of its legal foundation by the enactment of the Social Education Law will contribute much to the future development of social education. Again by the enactment of this Law and the Library Law, facilities for adult education were concretely furnished and their variety too was enriched. Concerning the library which forms the central installation of social education, following the advice of the U. S. Education Mission, the principle of opening it free of charge was established. Also it was an epoch-making event that citizens' public halls were set up which form the center of social education closely connected with community life. Again a new field was opened in school extension, audio-visual education, correspondence education, and their contents were made fuller. With respect to the connection between school education and social education, the PTA activities which newly started after the war are becoming more and more brisk, and through united activities of teachers and parents, the educational environment is readjusted and a great effect is expected on the prevention of juvenile delinquency. Concerning young people's organizations too we see the strong germ of new independent activities not directed from above.

However, all these are just germs, and only the ground for future development has been furnished. In view of the actual condition, same as other departments, or even more than other parts of school education, the field of social education lacks in physical equipment and as for its human element, that is, the leaders of social education, it has almost nothing at present. Such being the case, to solve this problem, as is mentioned by the U.S.

up healthy builders of a democratic society will fail to achieve its aim.

Chapter III. Teachers' Problems

In accordance with the drastic reform of the school system, very progressive and rational ways of solution have been worked out with regard to various problems of the status, qualifications, pre-service and in-service training, etc. of the teachers who actually participate in education.

The status and qualifications of teachers have been more progressively and rationally established than before, by a series of legislation such as the Law for Special Regulations concerning Educational Public Service (promulgated on January 12, 1949), the Educational Personnel Certification Law (promulgated on May 31, 1949), etc. As for the training of teachers, they are required to be provided with higher scholastic attainments in accordance with the fundamental principle that all teachers should have scholastic attainments of and above university graduation level. Thus, with a view to elevating teachers' quality and their social position, higher general education and professional preparatory education on the level far higher than the former one have already been given to the applicants for the teaching profession. Besides, the measures of re-education and in-service training of teachers are also taken under the abovementioned principles in order to improve the quality of in-service teachers.

Notwithstanding the establishment of such ideal measures, the number of teachers available today is extremely small and their quality is very inferior. We must recognize the fact that this tendency of insufficiency of teachers both in number and quality is endangering the foundation of our new education. Besides, it is a clear and plain fact that applicants for the faculty of liberal arts and education and the faculty of education are far less than those for other faculties, and their quality is inferior to the latter. Furthermore, although the in-service training and re-education of teachers are already in practice, the ratio of unqualified teachers against the total number of in-service teachers is still high. As for the institutes for teachers, the present program contains not a few points to be reflected upon, when we think of the fact that the lecturers themselves not infrequently lack in scholarship and instructional competence, which is apt to bring this in-service training program to naught, of the difficulties in maintenance of teachers' health, their financial burden, the teachers being obliged to leave their school too long for attendance at training courses etc.

In short, the shortage of teachers in quantity and inferiority of their competence is a serious problem both for the present and for the future, and we are under urgent necessity to set up in haste positive and concrete measures in order to invite and secure men of ability to the educational field so that we may carry out new education to completion. And we should not forget to endeavor to realize, as the central problem the jump promotion of the teachers' pay and the elevation of their social standing on the spiritual side.

Chapter IV. Reformation of the Higher Education

By the reform of the school system, the new-system university which is a four year course organ of higher education made its start in 1947. The outstanding feature of this new-system university is to be established in correcting the defects of institutions of higher education under the old system which lacked in the development of culture of students as

And it is not without reason that this lack or deficiency is often pointed out as the cause of lowering scholarship level in the new educational system despite correctness of its goal.

Besides these, there still remain many important problems among which we may mention such as lack of installations and equipment, but let us here just point out that as the cause of appearance of these numerous problems, there exists the basic fact of inadequacy of educational finance.

Chapter II. Reform of School System

The most fundamental reform concerning school system after the war is the realization of a democratic system or 6-3-3-4 system, the so-called single track school system. By the establishment of this school system, the traditional complicated and irrational school system was broken down at last, and the equal opportunities of receiving education which is the fundamental principle of democracy was firmly set up. By this reform compulsory education for all people was extended to nine years, and as for the higher education, the schools of all levels were widely opened to the working youth by the completion of correspondence education and the establishment of part-time courses in upper secondary schools. Moreover, the principle of co-education enabled girls as well as boys to be admitted into the institutions of higher education. In addition, special education and pre-school education which had been rather neglected were definitely treated in the School Education Law; the compulsory education system was established with regard to schools for the blind and the deaf, and the kindergarten education system was recognized to hold its position in the chain of school education, and there are some people who are interested in kindergarten in education who claim to make it part of the compulsory education. Also it is a remarkable development that the significance of special education has come to be recognized by the public and the system of compulsory education has been instituted for the blind, and the deaf and the dumb.

But it must be envisaged that there still lie many difficult problems to be grappled with behind the notable promotion of equal opportunity realized by this reform in education. Above anything else, we must enumerate larger financial demands for education as well as extension of school facilities, through enforcement of the new educational system. The new construction and extension of school buildings, together with the rehabilitation of war-damaged ones, as mentioned later on, are imposing an extremely heavy burden on the local finances, while the still existing difficulty of school house arrangement, along with degradation of teachers both in quality and quantity, is to a large extent standing in the way of complete enforcement of the new school system. Another deplorable question is the dulness of vocational education resulting from amalgamation of upper secondary schools. Although it is an encouraging reform that many new-system upper secondary schools have been established in the form of a comprehensive system to realize equal opportunity for education, yet, on the other side, we are compelled to recognize that the students who go to the vocational course are on a remarkable decrease. To make the matter worse, there are very few competent teachers to take charge of the vocational courses; these numerous unfavorable conditions are throwing vocational education into a state of great inactivity. Unless some controlling measure for the promotion of vocational education is taken, centering in the upper secondary school, there is apprehension that the reform of the educational system that intends to build

abstract information one-sidedly, according to each one's interest, will and ability, have begun to learn spontaneously, actively and diligently. Fundamental conditions to become constituent members of a modern democratic society, namely, a healthy, rationalistic, critical attitude has also begun to appear, and many students who realize their own value as individuals are turning the classroom atmosphere to a bright social one. Concerning both spiritual and physical security and growth, a remarkable progress is now sprouting, accompanying practices of new health and physical education. Again, democratic through reformation of vocational course and home-making education, ability of adaptation to social life, of efficient, rationalistic operation of home, is now being fostered.

However, with such an auspicious germination we must not forget that there have arisen a number of difficult problems. Let us now mention a few of these.

1. There are various confusions due to misunderstanding or perversion of democracy as a fundamental educational idea. Such are the confusions brought about through misinterpretation of democracy so to say.

For example, we often find the deplorable condition that teachers, students, children, each do not recognize the noble idea of responsibility and obligation in democracy and confuses freedom with disorder. One of the remarkable examples is that some teachers and students mistake a ruinous political activity toward school order for a noble revolutionary conduct. Also in the system of school administration, some teachers interfere with the execution of the duties of the school principal, the responsible administrator, and want to take into their hands the administrative power. Such tendency has sometimes been seen right after the war, which also comes from a conscious or unconscious misunderstanding of democracy.

2. As a fact often seen among pupils and children there is born a tendency to make light of order among them, and teachers also are very negligent in inculcating the habit of making importance of order among children and pupils. Coercion of obedience is of course a wrong training. However, to foster the attitude and habit to keep order both physically and spiritually must form the basis of democracy.

3. There is a great lack of guidance power on the part of the teachers at present. As a rule, new education consists of constructing curricula not by one-sided instruction of the Education Ministry, but by the teacher's own creative or original plan and from actual need for educational objects. And this principle of teaching must run not only through the case of organizing curricula, but also through all situations of education.

Despite our need of realizing these principles and policies of education, a great many teachers are still in a very poor and unsatisfactory condition in their scholarship.

Consequently, as it is apprehended by our intelligent people, corresponding to teacher's poor scholarship, although we encourage children and pupils to form the habit of self-study and self-attainment, generally the standard of their scholarship is very low. Also on account of disorder of the general public, capped by imperfection of the teacher's guidance, there appear many cases of young people's delinquency. In respect to improvement of the teacher's guiding power, we see a serious defect of new education.

4. There is an acute problem of deficiency of teaching materials, tools and other necessities for study aid. It should be called a great self-contradiction that while the new education makes the autonomous and independent study a principle, there is a lack of referential materials which should supplement children's and pupils' learning and study.

Summary of This Report

During the 5 years since the termination of World War II, the education of Japan has achieved an epochal democratic reform. The peoples' liberal and democratic will, no matter how weak it was for the community in general, being urgently cherished in the field of Japanese education since the Meiji period, has at last, thanks to the kind cooperation and cordial help of the Allied Powers, especially of the educational and scientific circles of the United States of America, had an opportunity to transform itself into an achievement we now see before our eyes. This is short of a miraculous solution of the longstanding question at a stroke, as it were. With a view to the strong support of the opinions of the general public, as is verified by the tones of discussions by the Press, we firmly believe that the basic principle of the reform of Japan's education has been publicly authorized, promising a bright future for its execution in the form of various educational activities.

The reform attempted and undertaken having been such a fundamental and thoroughgoing one that it cannot be denied that there have already been experienced sundry inevitable transitional confusions and a mountain of difficult problems yet to be solved. Reflecting upon the processes, of the reformation we have traced during these 5 years in the aftermath of the war and looking forward to its future course, it seems to be but imperative for us to face such sundry difficulties lying in the way, and to let the general public know how things are standing in this connection, as well as what has been achieved by the reformation of this time.

All the Chapters we have written have been directed to give the major points of the current situations of the reformation of Japan's education and of the problems yet to be solved. Now we are going to give the summaries of each of the aforesaid Chapters in terms of a conclusion of this Report.

Chapter I. Aim and Content of New Education

Since the end of War, Japan's education has been reformed fundamentally and thoroughly. It was realized by the revolution of aim of education and by establishing the foundation of education upon democratic, modern, scientific and liberalistic ideals, and entirely eradicating the error of the past of putting it on the nationalistic, feudalistic, mythological and standardized idea.

This aims at the human revolution of the Japanese, and in that sense is really a fundamental and thoroughgoing revolution. We can prove the very fact of our educational revolution by enactment of the "Fundamental Law of Education", which is a law made by the democratic will of the people and not by the one-sided declaration of the "Imperial Rescript on Education" which was given from above.

As a result of such a democratic revolution of educational ideas, a remarkably democratic, liberalistic progress has appeared in contents of education, such as curriculum formation, instruction method, measurement of educational effect, textbook and other referential and supplementary materials.

Children and pupils, being freed from the bound condition of being provided with

great problem thereafter, how the educational expense which is going to depend upon the finance of cities, towns, and villages could be secured for the realization of the equal opportunity of education. Such being the case, legal measures should be taken for securing the minimum amount of educational expense, at least for the compulsory education.

In case the system of sharing the compulsory education expense by the national treasury be abolished and the measures for national sponsor for it are not taken in place of the abolished system, various problems will occur about the disbursement of the educational expense.

In that case, the former system of sharing the educational expense by the national treasury, prefectures, and cities, towns, and villages might be suited better to the reality of such a transition period as now is.

(3) Other Problems.

The improvement of educational facilities the expense of which is to be disbursed by local entities, or stabilization of the finance of public schools is impossible for the present, without national subsidization, therefore, a large amount of subsidy should be appropriated to those by special measures, and the perfect facilities and contents should be brought about, as soon as possible.

And though it may not belong to the problem of school finance, in the truest sense of the word, in the present state of student's life which is very pressingly destitute, the amount of scholarship fund should be increased by a large amount, in order to secure the equal opportunity of education; while, on the other hand, effort should be made for securing the school finance.

As stated above, if the establishment of educational finance is neglected at present, the principle of autonomy of education or of free compulsory education will become a formal guarantee by mere words, and consequently the construction of a democratic country will come to lose its foundation.

F. Problems in Educational Finance.

The present state of educational finance and the problems therein are as stated heretofore, but the important problems hereafter are as follows.

(1) Thorough arrangement and unification of the school account system.

In order to establish educational finance, it is necessary that the school account system should first be well arranged and unified. As the present system of dividing the items of educational budget is quite the same as that of general administration budget, both for the nation and for the local entities, it is inadequate for showing the educational activities and their contents.

In other words, educational activities and their contents have such a complexity throughout the whole system of 6-3-3-4, according to their grades, types and scales, that the actual state of educational expense should be grasped by dividing the items to show its contents exactly. Under the present classification of the items, expenses for the different kind of contents are calculated under the same item, and moreover, the classification differs according to prefectures and cities, towns and villages. Therefore, we cannot see, through these items, what educational activities are really going on and to what extent.

By calculating scientifically and reasonably the minimum amount needed for every item provided adequately to express the real educational activities, the total amount of educational expense can be actually made out. Only by adjusting the school account system to such a uniform of item-division, adequate educational expense can be determined. In order to apply this system to all school budgets, the legal measure such as school account law or something like it is necessary.

Further, the similar unified account system should be considered for social educational expense, as in the case of school educational expense.

(2) Securing of the minimum educational expense.

If the minimum necessary educational expense is calculated by the method mentioned above, that amount should be secured at least. Both the national educational budget and the local ones are equally important. Local educational expense had been shared by the national treasury, prefectures, and cities, towns and villages according to their respective financial ability, but in accordance with the establishment of the local finance equalization grant system, the guarantee by the national treasury for the local educational expense virtually has come to naught.

That the legal measures should be taken for securing the minimum educational expense was mentioned already in the section, "Local Educational Finance," and this is most important regarding the compulsory education expense.

The system of sharing the compulsory education expense by the national treasury was abolished and the compulsory education expense has come to depend entirely upon local finance. If the present conditions are let alone, not only the principle of free compulsory education will not be able to be realized, but the system to rely upon large amounts of donations will also be unable to be abolished.

The Shoup Taxation Mission has recommended that all the responsibilities of the 6-3-3 system should be transferred to the hands of cities, towns, and villages. It will become a

Dim. prior to war damage	1,495,330
Dim. of war damage	402,919
Rate %	27

Note: By Dim. of war damage is meant dimension of severe destruction.

The dimensions expected to be rehabilitated before the end of 1950 are as follow:

Dim. of war damage	402,919
Dim. of rehabilitation	208,184
Rate %	51.6

In this way the rehabilitation from the war damage may only be a little more than 50% by the end of 1950, which makes it possible to imagine how seriously the seats of learning have suffered the damage.

The rehabilitation of war damages has been mainly paid from the public work expenses, whose total is shown in the following table.

Expenses needed for the Rehabilitation of Gov Schools.		
1 9 4 6	76,015,695	(81,037,477)
1 9 4 7	66,726,544	(87,964,231)
1 9 4 8	267,023,000	(399,439,000)
1 9 4 9	292,030,000	(368,790,000)
1 9 5 0	561,209,000	(872,479,000)
Total	1,263,004,251	(1,747,370,185)

Note: The figures in the parenthesis show the total sum of public work expenses paid for use of adjusting Gov. schools. The table shows the emphasis put upon the rehabilitation of war damages.

(C) Improvement of the Obsolete School Houses.

The dimensions of obsolete buildings needing reconstruction is enormous. Most of these buildings had passed their age limit of use long before the war, without being rebuilt because of the scanty materials and of tight money situation immediately after the War. Especially most of the former normal schools were built during the Meiji Era, and are in need of earliest reconstruction, already on the verge of ruin.

Plans for Future

As has been described thus far, various problems are awaiting solution as to the facilities of Government universities. The solution will by no means be easy. Frankly speaking, the facilities of the Government schools are in almost imminent danger. What is to be done is to secure the lowest standard of facilities referred to above.

Most of the new universities having been amalgamated from old ones, what is required is that all of their facilities are to be reorganized for the purpose of realizing their educational objectives and the rationalization of their management.

(3) The Shortcomings of the New-system Universities.

Some of the new-system universities and their departments are far below satisfying the necessary requirements as such.

(a) Teacher Training Universities, and Teacher Training Departments of other Universities (Old Normal Schools).

These former normal schools were in 1941 transferred from each of the prefectures with their current facilities to the administration of the Government. Their facilities had not been improved when they met the reform of the school system, the result being that they represent the grossest defects in university education,

We shall innumerate a few examples of the rate of current facilities for experiments and practices on the total dimensions of the schools. (as for the standard, about 34 % is required)

Fdu. Dep. or Gakugei Dep.	Total No. of Tsubo	Dim. of fac. for exp. & prac.	Rate %
Chiba Univ.	2,002	285	14
Yokohama Gov. U.	6,206	565	9.1
Akita Univ.	4,277	366	8.5
Iwate Univ.	2,433	288	11.8
Kyoto Gakugei U.	3,040	467	15

(b) Newly Established Old System Medical University.

This was originally started as a medical college, whose facilities had absorbed municipal hospitals or elementary schools, and having been damaged by the war, borrowed military barracks, thus showing serious defects as an institute for medical education.

(c) Universities Transferred from Other Ministries.

In this category fall three universities; i. e. Electric Communication Univ., established as training institutes, with meagre facilities neither meeting the required standard for the education of general culture nor for the achievement of educational goals in general. They have to be adjusted from the start.

(d) There are beside these three major problems, sundry problems to be solved. The adjustment of teacher training universities and the attached lower secondary schools of teacher training departments has just only begun. The completion of the welfare girls' departments attached to medical universities, started in 1949, whose objective is to educate nurses, will have to be waited for long. Strong is the demand for the adjustment of dormitories as welfare facilities, which will mean a great deal for the protection of student's life.

(B) Rehabilitation from War Damages.

The damages suffered by the Government universities are as follows.

This business has been operated since 1949 as part of minor public work for the purpose of promoting healthy development of sports and recreation. The national subsidy expended for this purpose amounted to 2 million yen in 1949, and to 7.6 in 1948. Since 1949 the work has been operated as part of the unemployment relief work under administration of the Labor Ministry. This movement, however, should be directed toward the establishment of the comprehensive playgrounds, beginning with the work of levelling ground for simple natural ones. It is hoped that the budget should be obtained through the instrumentality of the Ministry of Education so that it may give planned and systematized guidance and financial aids toward the realization of this project.

(3) Adjustment and Rehabilitation of Facilities of Government Schools.

The former Government schools were 19 universities, 26 higher schools, 65 colleges, 108 normal schools, and 2 others, which were amalgamated into 68 new-system universities, beside 3 universities and 3 high schools transferred from other Ministries. The total dimension of the facilities of these schools is shown in the following table. (The figure includes those to be realized by the budget for 1950).

	As of End of 1950
	No. of Tsubo
Adjustment of Univ. buildings	906,083
Attached Hospital	180,287
Classroom for Welfare Girls' Dep.	2,786
Dormitory for Welfare Girls' Dep. " "	4,090
Nurses' Dormitory	11,957
New Upper Sec. Sch.	11,684
New Low. Sec. S.	37,939
Elem. School	63,199
Kindergarten	2,249
Dormitory	192,851
Total	1,418,125

Major Problems Pertaining to the Current Facilities of Government Schools.

(A) Adjustment of Facilities of New System Universities

(1) Facilities for General Culture

On the basis of the reform of school system, the new-system university started in 1949. But a great many of these institutes lack facilities suitable for the new-system universities. The former universities and colleges had more or less facilities adapted for their specific courses, but seriously lacked facilities to be required for the course of general culture. One of the most urgent problems is therefore to complete such facilities.

(2) Reorganization of the Facilities for New-system Universities.

	Dimension of War Damage	Rehab. Dim at end of 1946	Rate of Rehab.
Higher Schools & Colleges	25,416	9,662	38.1%
Upp. Sec. Schools	567,682	178,421	31.4%
Elem. Sch.	1,432,919	453,571	31.7%
Blind & Deaf Sch.	24,929	9,701	39.0%

(C) Rehabilitation of Damage of Buildings of Public Schools, &c.

According to a considerable figure of damages by storm, flood, and other disasters, the following expenses have been paid out from the national subsidy.

1946	¥ 17,368,933
1947	47,497,021
1948	421,395,000
1949	280,000,000
1950	200,000,000
Total	966,260,954

As these rehabilitation expenses are confined to the disasters designated, it is strongly desired that the subsidy should be extended so that it may cover the disaster expenses hitherto met by local finances of cities, towns and villages.

(2) Adjustment and Rehabilitation of Facilities for Social Education.

1) The Library.

With a view to the promulgating the Library Law, efforts have been made so that free libraries may be operated at the earliest date, which will no doubt require the financial aid of the State. The expenses hitherto met by the State for the rehabilitation of the war-damaged libraries are as follows.

<u>Year</u>	<u>Sum</u>	<u>Aknowledged Number of Tsubo</u>
1 9 4 7	¥ 771,790	(504)
1 9 4 8	3,393,000	(500)

The number of the private and public libraries at present is 1,550, of which 1,386 are public. Only 229 public libraries have more than 3,000 books each. It is of paramount importance to adjust these libraries, for the purpose of giving people of cities, towns, and villages more opportunities of education, culture, information, and of recreation.

2) The Citizens' Hall.

The idea of the citizens' hall appeared in 1946, immediately after the termination of the war, as an important nucleus of social education. It has since made rapid progress, so much that out of the 10 thousand and odd cities, towns, and villages, about 50% have established their citizens' halls, which are being utilized as centers of education, culture, information, and recreation of and for these local entities. With a view to such results as these, hope is expressed that strong assistance and guidance should be given to extend this movement to the rest of the cities, towns, and villages of Japan, which means a considerable expenditure from the national subsidy.

3) Facilities for Physical Education, Sports and Welfare.

from war and natural disasters. The dimension of elementary school buildings suffering from war damages is 1,432,915 tsubo, of which about one third had been rehabilitated by the end of March 1950, including those rehabilitated by independent means. After the termination of the war, there has increased the rate of disasters of nature such as storm, flood, and earthquakes, from which many schools have still been unable to effect restoration. Help is wanted for their timely recovery.

(4) It is necessary to prepare in-door gymnasiums in cold and snowy districts or in districts with long spells of rainfall.

(5) To complete the fundamental facilities necessary for the operation of the new education.

The adjustment of facilities of the lower secondary school has been carried on with help of such small amount of national subsidy, equal to about 300 million yen in total, which enabled the schools concerned to obtain necessary desks and stools, with the result that the current classrooms are of a uniform type, square in shape with rows of desks and benches, giving a bleak and joyless impression. What is wanted is for the State to give monetary and technical guidance in equipping the school buildings and in adjusting the teaching materials, so that all these may match with the new education as stated in the Courses of Study.

(6) It will be necessary to take suitable preventive measures against the security of school facilities.

(7) It will be necessary to promote the adjustment of the deaf and blind schools.

(8) It will be necessary to secure loans accompanied by national subsidy, with a lower rate of floating loans.

All of these are points to be seriously taken into consideration, by establishing definite basic principles, in which the State gives enough subsidy, necessary advice and guidance, so that the educational facilities of cities, towns, and villages may mean a true equality of education and the decrease of the parents' burden of paying for compulsory education expenses.

Though the rate of loan floatation has been lowered this year, it is still as high as 9.2%.

In the table of the budget for 6-3 buildings in 1948, the percentage of the donation amounts to 60% of the total sum of the contributions.

Donation calculated into the Budget.

	Pref.	City, town, vill.	Total
Total Sum	469,779	5,469,839	5,939,618
6-3 Donat.	2,777	3,662,296	3,663,073

(B) Rehabilitation of War Damages of Public Schools.

The state of rehabilitation of war damages of schools suffering from war disasters during the Pacific War is quite slow as shown below. It will be necessary for the State to expend of subsidy to promote the rehabilitation work, whose emphasis, however, is put on plans for such rehabilitation as will match the new-system education rather than on merely maintaining the former standard of school building.

buildings which were started under the prospect of national subsidy were left expected to drizzling rains or to be constructed by forcing a donation of ¥ 10.000 per family by levying additional taxes, or by raising loans, so that the intended buildings may be completed.

The problem of the 6-3 buildings has had profound effects not only upon the educational system as a whole, but also the city, town and village administration, leading to the recall of the chiefs of town and villages, the resignation of members of town and village councils, and the suicide of village chiefs.

A thoroughgoing research was therefore operated as to the dimension of school buildings, before securing a supplementary budget of the sum of 3,000 million yen (including 1,500 m. of public work expenses) for 1949, and the sum of 9,000 million yen (including ¥ 4,500m. of public work expenses) for 1950. In cities, towns, and villages where the percentage of the total dimension of the buildings not reached the temporary lowest standard of 0.7 tsubo (for classroom, passage, and water closet) per pupil, the goal is expected to be achieved by the end of 1950. The number of the total tsubo of the buildings whose expenses have been met by 50% national subsidy since 1947, is 1,850,000 tsubo. The number of the tsubo of the buildings built by cities, towns, and villages is 1,200,000, costing about 10,000 million yen.

Even with the security of the 0.7 tsubo standard in cities, towns, and villages with large areas the school distance for the pupils is not considered, and the basis of calculation of this 0.7 tsubo is not favorable for these districts concerned, upper secondary schools with surplus area of building having been taken into calculation of the average. Conversely, the independent school buildings and union schools have been given no special consideration. Thus the average of the 0.7 tsubo secured for all schools is not necessarily realized in many cases, which are supposed to amount to 1,456,000 tsubo in all.

In cities, towns, and villages belonging to the latter category, many of the schools educate the pupils in a 2-part system, in rented buildings, in over-crowded classrooms, or by such extraordinary means. The details are as follows:

Number of classes in a 2-shift basis	15,676
Number of classes in rented houses	12,969
Number of classes in lecture halls and gymnasiums	6,366
Number of classes in corridors, etc.	4,352

It goes without saying that the Elementary and Lower Secondary pupils are experiencing indescribable miseries.

For the purpose of realizing a more complete education in the new Lower Secondary School, the following fundamental measures may be taken for the adjustment of school buildings:

- (1) It is a matter of great urgency that the buildings should be adjusted to the level of 0.9 tsubo per elementary pupil and of 1.2 per lower secondary student. Prior to that the 0.7 tsubo standard should by all means be quickly reached.
- (2) The dilapidated school houses should be repaired before it is too late. The total dimension of school houses older than 40 years is about 2,560,000 tsubo, of which about 440,000 tsubo have been prohibited by order for use because of the negligence of repairs during the war days.
- (3) It is a matter of urgency to promote the rehabilitation of school houses suffering

E. Adjustment and Rehabilitation of Cultural and Educational Facilities.

Immediately after the termination of the war, the reconstruction of the lost facilities for culture and education had to be started with schools and libraries destroyed by the warfare. Today when full five years have already elapsed, the rate is very low of the rehabilitation of the destroyed schools, as: Gov. 42 % Pub: 316% and Priv. 47.3% ;

As to the re-adjustment of educational facilities for the 6-3-3-4 system, the vital problem to be solved is the problem of the Lower Secondary School, among public schools, and the problem of adjustment of the new system University, among national schools.

With ever increasing disasters, the danger of delapidated school buildings is almost imminent, because of their having long been neglected of repairs during the war period. Nothing will be of greater urgency than to rehabilitate and to take measures for the prevention of possible disasters.

For the purpose of promoting social education, progress is being made of adjustment of citizens' and public libraries, but not so rapidly as might be expected.

The expenses for these educational facilities are mostly paid from the public work fund amounting since 1946 to about 15,800 million yen, which is equivalent to only 6.8% of the total public work fund of 234,500 million yen. Request is made that the amount allowed should be increased at a stroke. In local public bodies, about the same amount as is expended for public works is paid out of local loans for this purpose, the result being that in practice about twice as much is expended for this use.

(1) Adjustment and Rehabilitation of facilities of Public Schools.

(A) Adjustment of facilities of Public 6-3 System Schools.

Of the series of educational reforms of Japan as has been realized on the basis of the advice by the U. S. Educational Mission, no other problem has been so vital as the problem of furnishing buildings for the new-system lower secondary schools.

The Lower Secondary School started in 1947, with the understanding that only the first year was compulsory, and that the current facilities were to be used for the necessary classrooms, without any newly constructed building at least for that year. The total budget estimated for this use was thus only about 803 million yen (of which 457 was met by national subsidy).

This budget allowed no room for the construction of any new buildings, nor was any other means available such as raising loans, the result being that the lessons had to be given in a 2-or 3-shift system, in classrooms "under-the-blue sky", in corridors, and in stables, whose miserable state was literally beyond description. As a counter-measure for this there was prepared a supplementary budget amounting to about 770 million of public business expenses in 1947, and about 5,000 m. of public business expenses covering part of the programs made in the preceeding year.

Apart from the double-and triple-shift system and the substituted classrooms popular at the start, there had been a misunderstanding that the deficiency of the classrooms for the compulsory education would, have been recovered by the end of 1948. Accordingly in trying to compile a balanced budget at the beginning of 1949, the total sum demanded for the 6-3 system school building was entirely deleted, the result being that those

of stringency, for the promotion of their wholesome development, in the following way:--

(1) Assistance by the government or by the local entities of the private schools had been a question, centering upon the interpretation of Article 89 of the Constitution, but the problem was solved in accordance with the provision of Article 59 of the Private School Law.

(2) Damages upon private schools by the war were very great and the damaged area, where the facilities were almost completely destroyed amounted to some 334,000 tsubo. About 47.3% of it has been rehabilitated, but the degree of recovery is far from the state of pre-war days.

As mentioned above, private schools are not only very busily occupied with the recovery of damaged facilities, but also must furnish new equipment and facilities in order to prepare the new school system; therefore, it will still take some years to recover and improve the equipment and facilities of them to the extent that they will be able to fully operate their school education.

Assistance for the private schools has been rendered in the form of loans for the recovery of buildings, but the recovery program has been made on the same level with national and public schools, and the total amount for it has reached ¥ 750,784,000, since 1946 up to the present. The apportionment of the loans has hitherto been done by hearing the opinion of the "Conference for Private School Building Rehabilitation Loans" but it has been decided to hear the opinion of the Private University Council hereafter.

(3) In accordance with the provision of the Inheritance Tax Law, the inheritance tax was exempted from the contribution to the private schools (school juridical persons). This treatment is the same as that of national and public schools.

(4) It is a matter of course that the liberty of private schools should not be interfered in connection with this assistance, but the minimum extent of supervision is inevitable for them in its relation to Article 89 of the Constitution, and in that the assistance might be rendered effective. Article 59 of the Private School Law has made this clear.

(5) It is necessary that the pension system among private universities as well as other private schools should be established, and further a certain definite allowance should be delivered for those who are under medical treatment, etc. This is necessary not only from the viewpoint of social security, but also for the promotion of private school education. Consequently, the Ministry of Education has made assiduous investigations and researches for the establishment of mutual aid system for the educational personnel of the private schools, expecting to realize it as soon as possible. The facility of this sort worth mentioning now is the Private Secondary School Pension Foundation, but even this contains only 30 % of educational personnel of private upper and lower secondary schools, and the amount of subsidy annually disbursed by the national treasury for it is only ¥ 2 million for each of the fiscal years 1949 and 1950.

In short, economic stringency of private schools is still very pressing, and it will take years to improve this condition. In view of these facts, the Ministry of Education intends to give as much assistance as possible, by means of subsidies, loans, and the establishment of mutual aid system. It also intends to assist the establishment of Private School Monetary Circulation which is now under deliberation by the United Association of Private Schools in Japan. It is only natural that considering the financial conditions of our country at present, it is expected that there lie many bottlenecks for the full realization of these programs.

for each prefecture, in accordance with National School Establishment Law, there are those that have annexed public schools, and on the other hand, there are those that have the aim of training the teachers of local compulsory education, therefore, as regards those universities, local entities show deep concern for their establishment or improvement and support them with donations or other means.

The amount of those shares by the local entities cannot be clearly calculated, but is estimated at about ¥ 1,000 million for the fiscal years 1949 and 1950 put together, the items of which are expenses for repairs, for equipment, and for libraries.

The greatest problem that underlies the university finance is the unbalance of personal expense and commodity expense, as mentioned before. Commodity expense of the universities is chiefly appropriated to research expense as well as to expenses maintenance, but whereas the personal expense has risen higher in all the departments of the government, according to the revision of the basic salaries through the period of economic inflation, the percentage of increase of research expense is far lower. Consequently, the budget amount for research expense in the universities is scarcely large enough the amount need for the expense for beating and water supplies. It is too small for the expense for the research activities proper. It is deemed of urgent necessity to such unreasonableness, and to establish the foundation of the university finance. For that purpose, the standard of chairs or the system to be substituted for them, in correspondence with the speciality of every faculty, should be defined first, together with the standard of the fixed number of personnel necessary for that system, and at the same time, the reasonable basis of calculating the expense for the maintenance and for the educational and research should be found by examining those expenses under each item separately, and next the appropriate fixed number of students should be determined for each university, with the consideration of the special characteristics of each faculty and department, and their indispensability for the locality and for the nation. Then the total amount of university expense should be calculated appropriately upon these bases. The important problem for the present university finance is to find the most reasonable system concerning how to share this total amount of university expense, and how to manage the university budget, with due consideration of the provisions of the laws of finance and accounting now in force.

D. Finance of Private Schools

Private schools have hitherto made no small contribution to the development of school education in our country, both for their number and for their characteristics and traditions.

But it is a well-known fact that many of these private schools are now in extreme distress for their management. This is chiefly due to the disbursement of vast rehabilitation expense and the rapid changes in social and economic conditions. In such situations, all the public schools have raised their tuition fee, examination fee and matriculation fee etc. to a large extent, and have been earnestly endeavoring to collect donations, in order to keep the balance between revenue and expenditure. But the raise of tuition fee etc. has its own limit, and the collection of donations is also not easy according to the economic situation, and in consequence, they are in such a stringency as to keep the temporary balance between their revenue and expenditure by loans.

The Ministry of Education has supported financially the private schools in such a state

C. Finance of National Universities

Finance of the national higher education institutes in our country had once been managed by a special account, but now it is included in the general account of the budget. The budget amount of expenses for the national higher education institutes for the fiscal year 1950 is ¥ 10,623,910,000 the details of which are ¥ 7,988,884,000 for the universities; 579,880,000 for the research institutes attached thereto, ¥ 2,060,160,000 for the hospitals attached thereto respectively. Among these, the university budget includes the expenses for three upper secondary schools under the direct control of the government and for other special schools, but generally it may be regarded as the expense for the management of national universities. This budget amount is appropriated for the whole current expense of the national schools (universities, 71; upper secondary schools, 3; and other, 2), expenses for repairs that are to be disbursed from public works expense, and common expense, for administration, being excluded. The details of this budget is as follows:

Expense for salary	¥ 3,341,991,000	(Fixed number of teachers: 47,988)
Personal expense (that of salary excluded)	¥ 1,951,701,000	
Commodity expense	¥ 2,691,191,000	

Personal expense occupies 66.3 % of the whole annual expenditure. This percentage was 46.2 in 1935, and 38.2 in 1943. Compared with these percentages, the present one is very high, and it has made the management of university finance very difficult; universities are hardly able to maintain their present status; and education and their research activities cannot be expected to be improved for the time being.

Ratio between personal expense and commodity expense in the budget of national schools:

	Budget amount of annual expenditure (A)		Salary and allowances (B)		Others (C)	
1935	58,329,117	100 %	26,920,222	46.2 %	31,408,895	53.8 %
1943	151,775,434	100 %	57,960,544	38.2 %	93,814,890	61.8 %
1950	7,988,884,000	100 %	5,293,692,400	66.3 %	2,691,391,600	33.7 %

Figures for 1935 and '43 are of special account.
Figures for 1950 are of gneral account. (Attached institutes and hospitals excluded.)

These expenses are of general account, so they are disbursed from the government, but the universities themselves have some amount of income of their own, for instance, several fees collected from the students, such as tuition fee, matriculation charge, etc.; proceeds of the products of school farm and forests; and income through the attached hospitals, etc. Among those mentioned above, only the budget of the hospitals' income gives, to some extent, basis to the determination of the budget amount of expenditure, but other incomes do not reach even 10 % of the budget expenditure, and have no real significance. Under present circumstances, the expense of the national universities is shared by the local finance to no small extent, besides what is shared by the national finance. The reason is because among those national universities that were established, at least one

program in fiscal 1950 is estimated at around 24 billion yen.

Again, for the benefit of those who have ability, but cannot enter upper secondary schools for financial reasons, the Japan Scholarship Society can give a scholarship amounting to ¥ 500 per month. At present, this is only applied to 2 % of all the pupils, and to accommodate all who desire, needs a considerably bigger scholarship fund.

(7) Local finance of education for to-morrow.

In the summer of 1949 the Shoup Mission visited Japan and at its recommendation her local administration came to undergo a radical reform and the local finance of education had an all-out change. Of the mission's recommendations, the particularly important for local educational finance are first, the abolition of the former Treasury's share of compulsory education expenses and second, the adoption of the local finance equalization fund system.

Having formed two-thirds of Ministry of Education budget, the Treasury's share of compulsory education expenses used to secure teachers allowances constituting 60-70 % of the expenses required for compulsory education, and this national security used to form the basis for maintaining the lowest level of equal opportunity for compulsory education. The Treasury's share system with this story behind it having been abolished and included in the local finance equalization fund, local educational expenses, with no national support for them have come completely and solely to depend on local finance. If left to themselves, educational expenses, which are very inadequate as they are, have much to fear for their future.

Sadder still, the board of education, set up for decentralization of educational administration, due to education expenses, which are under its jurisdiction, being covered by the general local finance, is unable financially to get up for itself to the detriment of educational autonomy. Unless its financial right is set up and the legal security of the State is obtained for it to take measures for securing educational expenses, the board of education will find itself in a delicate position and there is danger of its losing the reason for existence.

To promote education in these circumstances, it is necessary to establish educational finance on a firm basis. Regarding elementary and secondary education, let the fee for upper secondary and the existing system of depending upon the gifts of P. T. A. and other school-supporters, etc. be done away with, and the rule be established of payment at public expense, and, further, let consumption expenses include investment expenses. And in compulsory education, let the lowest standard expenditure needed for running the school, including the expenses for textbooks, school supplies, etc., be set up by law as the unit per child-pupil, and let this be secured financially. Regarding compulsory education, this being a point of especial importance, we must speedily and completely give compulsory education gratis both in name and in reality.

The Ministry of Education has long been making inquiries on this point, worked out Draft Law for Securing the Standard Compulsory Education Expenses, obtained the Cabinet consent to secure the lowest standard expenses, made speedy preparations to bring the draft law before the 7 th Session of the National Diet and received strong support of public opinion. Having failed, however, to get the final approval of the authorities concerned, we have at present no guarantee for expenses of local education.

amounted to 9 billion 5 hundred million yen. According to the Tokyo Metropolitan survey, even in fiscal 1948, it showed an average of ¥ 898 per elementary school child.

The ratio of the gift for the school from P. T. A. etc. to the city-town-village budget for education in fiscal 1948 was 72.3 % in elementary and 66 % in junior high; and it is due to the largeness of the city-town-village expenditure for education that the percentage was low in junior high, and the amount of gift per capita is much larger than in elementary. And the ratio of the gift to the total school-running expenditure (including teachers' allowances) was 12.3 % in elementary and 10.8 % in junior high.

It is the same with senior high. Since an adequate budget cannot be allowed, they are depending chiefly on the school fee revenue (20-30 % of the whole amount) and the gift from P. T. A., etc.

The fact being that these gifts form a serious impediment in running the school, and to the activities of P. T. A. itself, it is desirable to do away with a system of depending upon such gifts and to make it a matter of principle to pay with public expenses, and at the same time it must be considered that in upper secondary as in compulsory education, the school fee shall be universally abolished.

(6) Living expenses and educational expenses.

The ratio of the average expenses for food and drink and luxuries to the whole expenditure in 1930-1934 was 43 %, but in 1946 it rose to 60 % or more. Later on, the economic condition improved, but the ratio remains around 50 %.

This, as Engel's Law teaches us, shows better than anything else that the level of our living has been lowered.

These circumstances have obliged the percentage defrayed for education to fall to 12.4 % in 1930-4 and to 8.5 % in 1946, and the position occupied in living expenses by this apparently small percentage can never be slighted.

A recent survey shows that the percentage of expenses required by one elementary-school child is 3.89 % of his living expenses in May of fiscal 1950 and that of one junior high pupil is 5.5 %, and the per capita educational expense required for May is ¥ 595 and ¥ 754 respectively.

These are the figures for an ordinary month of the year, but when the expenses for textbooks, school supplies, school paraphernalia, etc. at the beginning of the school year and, moreover, the expenses for school trips and athletic meets are taken into consideration, the sum will be still larger and its ratio to the living expenses also higher.

The educational expenditure defrayed in the form of tax was ¥ 5,050 per home and ¥ 1,012 per member of the people in fiscal 1948; and ¥ 6,538 per home and ¥ 1,302 per capita in fiscal 1949; and ¥ 7,628 per home and ¥ 1,500 per capita in fiscal 1950.

Further, when textbooks, school supplies and school paraphernalia are taken into account educational expenses defrayed by the people will amount to an enormous sum.

Still, furnish of families too poor to pay for compulsory education, About 2.1% of the whole number school children age have the educational aid by the Livelihood Protection Law applied to them and in fiscal 1950, 870 million yen are allocated for the purpose. Even this however' when viewed from the basic principle of compulsory education gratis, prescribed for in the Constitution, being very inadequate, a rule must be made by which textbooks, school supplies, etc. shall be distributed at public expense, and the expenditure for this

In fiscal 1949, the top limit of the national average per teacher paid or aided by the Treasury was ¥ 5,569 in elementary, ¥ 6,093 in junior high and ¥ 6,519 in part-time senior high. But the average cash payment actually made was ¥ 5,823 in elementary, ¥ 6,233 in junior high, and ¥ 6,662 in part-time senior high; and regarding the whole amount of allowances, it is ¥ 7,000 in elementary ¥ 7,633 in junior high, and ¥ 8,395 in part-time senior high. Moreover, when viewed nationally, different prefectures are paying very different amounts in salary, and in the regular salary, there is a difference of ¥ 1,500-¥ 2,000 between the best and worst paying prefectures.

The above seems to prove that the existing situation of teachers' allowances is the result produced by the wealth or poverty of the locality, by its zeal for education and by its strength of labor front, and even in time when the local finance equalization funds system is operated rationally and local finance becomes solid, this question will remain unsolved. In case that teachers' allowances will be transferred to the city-town-village, education expenditure will amount to nearly 40 or 50 % of the city-town-village finance, a sum that cannot be defrayed even with the whole amount of the tax revenue; then, depending upon how the local finance equalization funds are operated, no one can tell whether as in 1940 and before, the situation of no payment or delayed payment of teachers' salaries will not come back. In a transition period like the present, educational expenses require particularly cautious handling.

Moreover, regarding teachers' allowance per child-pupil, the national average is ¥ 2,510 in elementary and ¥ 3,586 in junior high, while in the prefectures the highest and the lowest in elementary are ¥ 4,407 and ¥ 2,292 respectively, the highest and the lowest in junior high being ¥ 4,592 and ¥ 3,263 respectively.

The above shows that there are wide differences in different parts of the country in teachers' quality, number, pay and in all other respects. That is, in the Kanto and Tokaido, areas, where, prefectural finance is good, the percentage of payment for teachers' salaries to total expenditure in prefectural budget is below the national average, while in the Hokuriku and San-in areas, where finance is bad, it is above the average. This indicates the fact that although the local finance equalization fund can coordinate local finance, it cannot guarantee the equal opportunity for education. Herein lies the cause for legal steps to be taken for securing educational expenses quite aside from coordinating local finance.

(5) Running expenses other than teachers' allowances.

Even in compulsory education, the working expenses other than teachers' allowances are to be defrayed by the city-town-village, but besides their inability to appropriate an adequate amount due to the poverty of local finance, nothing being shared by the Treasury although the principle of compulsory education gratis is written in black and white in the Japanese Constitution, they are at present depending much for the education upon the donations of P. T. A. and other school supporters.

Of the running expenses for compulsory education defrayed by the city-town-village the actual showings in fiscal 1947 were ¥ 250 per capita. and in fiscal 1949 they were supposed to be ¥ 872 and the total amount was calculated 13 billion yen.

Of the above figures, the gifts of P. T. A. etc, according to the actual survey, seem to amount, to ¥ 547 per capita in elementary, to ¥ 749 in junior high and the total

(4) Assortment. and allowances of teachers.

(A) Teachers' qualifications.

In fiscal 1949, the unqualified elementary school teachers amounted to a national average of 25.9% and those of lower secondary to 12%. Classified according to To-Do-Fu prefectures, the highest in elementary schools counts for 48.6 % and the lowest for 7.3 % ; the highest in lower secondary for 26.8 % and the lowest for 2.9 %.

Classified according to their careers, the ratio of college graduates in elementary schools to the whole instructional staff is 54 to 100 ; and that in junior high 75.7 to 100. According to To-Do-Fu-prefectures, the highest in elementary being 88.2 % the lowest 30.9 % ; the highest in junior high 93.6, the lowest in 60.2 %, showing a wide divergence between the two.

As a counter plan, Ministry of Education has every year since the war end, been giving courses for the benefit and betterment of these unqualified teachers and giving certificates to those who have completed them. Consequent upon the establishment of Teacher Certification Law in May 1949, we determined to open the way for teachers to obtain higher certificates by their re-education, and have been giving this education, but we think it most urgent to give course-takers adequate financial aid.

(B) Quantity of teachers.

The number of teachers per existing class of children or pupile allocated in fiscal 1949, shows in elementary schools a national average of 1.22 persons, and classified according to prefectures, the highest was 1.40 persons and the lowest 1.08 ; and regarding lower secondary it was 1.59 persons nationally, while prefecturally, the highest was 1.81 persons, the lowest being 1.35.

Also, for the total number of 32,246 elementary and junior high schools in fiscal 1949, the number of clerical staff members was no more than 12,526, quite a few schools having no such staff members.

For lack of clerks, teachers of elementary and junior high schools are bothered with payment of teachers' salaries, reports to the board of education, delivery of school budget, the business of school lunch and other kinds of affairs not directly connected with their teaching to such a degree that they are overtaxed in body and time. All this actually obliges them to a certain degree to sacrifice education itself, which is their primary duty. In order to relieve teachers of such a heavy burden as this, each school must have clerical officers.

It gave a serious blow to organizing a school staff that the fixed sum for the fixed number system of the Treasury's share of compulsory education was put into effect on 1 January 1949 and in fiscal 1949, the 1.5 elementary and 1.8 junior high teachers for an assumed class of 50 children were cut down to 1.35 and 1.7 respectively.

In view of this, Ministry of Education tried to increase teachers so hard that it has had the former 1.5 for elementary and 1.8 for junior high recognized, and also succeeded in getting out of the frame of 1.33 % the total number of teacher's under t. b. treatment. But in fiscal 1950, the former Treasury's share was included in the local finance equalization funds, and it has ceased to be a specific fund for aiding local education, so we are under apprehension how far this assurance of the budget estimate will be realized.

(C) The average regular salary per teacher.

of the teachers' salaries of city-town village-supported elementary schools, and the share was estimated to be no less than ¥ 10,000,000 a year. This sum counted for about 20 % of elementary school teachers' salaries. This share went on increasing year by year until in 1923 it counted for 30 %, in 1926, for 48 %, and aiming at 50 % a year since then, it increased by leaps and bounds till in 1930 it reached the big sum of ¥ 8,500,000,000.

Consequent upon the radical reform in 1940 of the taxation system covering state and locality, the system of the Treasury's share of compulsory education expenses also underwent a big change. To explain: First, by transferring the teachers' salaries which hitherto had been borne by the city-town-village to the To-Do-Fu-prefecture, they removed the cause of no payment or delayed payment of teachers' salaries due to the financial difficulties of towns and villages caused by business depression, alleviated the pressure of educational expenses upon local educational expenditure and at the same time straightened out teachers' allowances and personnel matters. Second, by changing the former fixed-amount aid by the Treasury to an elastic system of the fixed-rate share of one half of the actual expenditure, they made clear the amounts of the share for teachers' allowance. Being epoch-making in the system of the Treasury's share of compulsory education expenses in this country, this reform greatly righted the former unbalances and irrationalities in educational finance and in educational administration.

In addition, the educational reform since Japan's defeat made the old compulsory education of six years a system of nine years, and the new-system lower secondary was started in fiscal 1947, but in sharing teachers' allowances the same steps as those of elementary schools have been adopted.

In fiscal 1948, the Treasury's share system was further revised, and the education in blind schools and deaf schools having been made compulsory, and the personnel expenses of those engaged in the education were made an item of the share, and beginning on 1 January 1949, the fixed-rate share of one half of the past showings was changed into a budgetary share of one half on the basis of a fixed amount for a fixed number.

That is to say, due to the establishment of Local Autonomy Law, the control of the central Government was weakened, local finance became unhealthy, educational allowances showed a marked increase and the Treasury's share became unexpectedly large, and if things had been left to themselves, the program of state finance would have been endangered. Consequently, a limit was set to the number of teachers and the average amount of their allowances to be borne by the state, and it having been decided that half the amount should be shared by the Treasury, the plan was carried out in the fourth quarter. Accordingly, the actual number of teachers and the amount of their allowances to be borne by the prefecture became more than that of the state, which weighed on local finance and naturally gave birth to the question of the so-called fixed amount for the fixed number.

As for upper secondary, with the view of the state assuring the equal opportunity of education to the laboring youth, it was decided for the Treasury to share the four-tenths of the allowances for teachers of the part-time curriculum, but in fiscal 1949, the number of teachers in the national budget was much smaller than the actual number, which cast a shadow on the promotion of laboring-youth education.

In fiscal 1950, however, the above Treasury's share of teachers' allowances was abolished and it was decided that the share should be switched over to the local finance equalization funds system based upon the Shoup recommendation.

% in 1948 and 85.6 % in 1949.

(B) The educational expenditure in the local budget occupied 29.0 % of the whole To-Do-Fu-prefectural annual expenditure in fiscal 1948, and in fiscal 1949 it occupied 32.1 % in the To-Do-Fu-prefecture, 17.2 % in the city-town-village, and in the total local annual expenditure, 25.5 %.

(C) In both state and locality, of the whole educational expenditure, the local educational expenditure (state subsidies included) occupies as much as 87% in fiscal 1948 and 88.3 % in fiscal 1949.

It may be added that in fiscal 1950, it reaches 86.9 %

(D) In this enormous sum of the local educational expenditure, the percentage of national aid is 28.9 % in fiscal 1948 and 38.2 % in 1947, elucidating the fact that local education needs national aid.

(E) As for the itemized details of the local educational expenditure according to kind of schools, 40.4 % is given to elementary schools, 43.2 % to lower secondary schools, 12.5 % to upper secondary and 0.4 to blind, deaf, showing that almost all of the amount is being given to compulsory education. That the percentage occupied by secondary is high, is due to the largeness of the temporary expenditure for building school houses, encroaching upon the expenditure for elementary schools.

(F) To show in 1949 money value the expense per child-pupil according to kind of schools, the ¥ 6,055 in 1931 becomes ¥ 3,844 in 1948 in elementary schools; the ¥ 18,800 in 1931 in old middle schools become ¥ 9,931 in lower secondary and ¥ 15,487 in upper secondary. Taking into consideration the building expenses of lower secondary in fiscal 1948 and the fact that senior high include former vocational schools, we may say that the running expenses are still small.

(G) Of the per child working expenses of elementary schools, the national share in fiscal 1931 was 36 % and the rest was shared by the city-town-village. Due to the systematic reform of 1940, however, in the year 27.8 % was shared by the state, 27.8 % by the prefecture, and 44.4 % by the city town-village, greatly relieving the last of its burden. In fiscal 1948, the 33.6 % was borne by the state and the prefecture respectively, and 32.8 % by the city-town-village.

(3) The Treasury's aid to local educational finance.

The Treasury's aids to the local educational finance are mainly those for the teachers' allowances and the expenses for temporary facilities. Of the two, regarding the aid for facilities expenses, mention will be made in the paragraph of "Completion and restoration of educational facilities."

The Treasury's aid for teachers' allowances

Since compulsory education was started in this country, we have made it a rule that the city-town-village shall bear its expenses and the Treasury share a very small part of it. With the development of education, however, the increase of its expenses came to bear hardly on city-town-village economy. In 1918, of the entire annual expenditure of the city-town-village of the country over, 27 % was the working expenses of the elementary school and 60% of it was the teachers' allowances. And the poor town-village suffered harder from educational expenditure. Hereupon in 1948, Law for the Treasury's Share of City-Town-Village Compulsory Education Expenses was set up, which made the Treasury bear part

the fact that the educational finance to back them up has not been established, it has not realized sufficient results. It may be called the greatest problem left unsolved in education to set up the educational finance and to try to promote elementary and secondary education, especially the compulsory one.

(1) Shares of school expenditure.

The shares of the school expenditure to be borne by prefecture, city, town or village, are, by the rules, for establishers to defray the expenses of the schools (The School Education Law, Article 5), stipulated as follows:

Those who are obliged to set up the elementary school and the lower secondary school are the city, town and village and the expenses needed for the education are primarily defrayed by the city-town-village and those who are obliged to set up the schools for the handicapped.....schools for the blind, schools for the deafare the prefectures and the expenses are to be defrayed by the prefectures. As a rule, the high school is established and its expenses are defrayed, by the prefecture, but in case of a new establishment, the expenses for the school house, the site and the equipment are customarily defrayed by the local city, town or village. Truly there are instances when high schools for the blind or for the deaf are established by the city, town or village, and in that case their expenses are defrayed by the said city, town or village.

The rules for defrayment of school expenses have the following exceptions:

(A) The teachers' payments, family allowances, regional allowances and other expense of city, town or village-supported elementary, lower secondary, blind, deaf and part-time high schools are defrayed not by the city-town-village, but by the prefecture. (Law for Defrayment of allowances for City, Town or Village-Supported Schools Personnel).

Of the above, one half of the expenses for teachers engaged in compulsory education has been defrayed by the state and four-tenths of those for teachers of the part-time senior high has been shared by the state, but they were both abolished in fiscal 1950 (Law for the Treasury's Share of Compulsory Education expenses: Law for Subsidy by the Treasury for Expenses for Teachers of Part-Time upper Secondary Schools).

(B) The expenses for enterprises for restoring war damages of public schools and their emergency measures are to be shared by the state and local public bodies (Local Finance Law, Art. 10)

(C) The expenses for building facilities consequent upon prolonging compulsory education (6-3 building expenses) are to be defrayed by state and local public body for the time being (Local Finance Law, Art. 34)

(2) Educational expenses in the budgets of the state and locality.

The main points of educational expenses in the budgets of the state and locality in recent years follow:

(A) The percentage of Ministry of Education budget (allowance) in the total budget of general account of the country is, including public enterprises, 6.4 in fiscal 1948, 5.2 in fiscal 1949, and in fiscal 1950 it is, including what was transferred to local finance equalization funds, 7.0; and what was allocated out of Ministry of Education budget (allowance) for subsidies for local education expenses was 71.2 % in 1948 and 68.1 % in 1949.

Again, of these local subsidies, the state subsidy for compulsory education reached 69.0

(3) Students actually saw and experienced the cooperative study, actual survey, discussion and other new educational forms used at this course.

As a subsidiary fruit may be mentioned that through this course mutual understanding between Japanese and American educators was deepened which largely contributed to the friendship of both countries.

By four short courses we have raised enough personnel required for the time being, but among those who are not favored with the opportunity of becoming university staff, there is a strong desire for having such a course.

The program for 1950 is as follows:—

Attendants to the course will be teachers of universities which have teacher training courses or will have them in future; university teachers in charge of subjects of general culture; people connected with Boards of Education, other teachers, 1900 in all.

There will be 26 technical subjects of the course including those concerned with teaching, vocational and general culture and there will be two terms each consisting of 12 weeks.

Chapter IX Educational Finance

A. New School System and Finance

It is several years since the new school system got under way. In spite of the magnitude of its ideals, however, the system is sadly insufficient in quality and quantity, facilities and equipment, as well as the treatment of teachers.

This is due to the impoverished financial circumstances in post-war Japan, and particularly to the fact that the educational finance, the backbone of education, has not been set up, and (consequently) the educational expenditure has been very small. Without the establishment of educational finance, it will be impossible to promote education and culture hereafter or to have the ideal new school system sufficiently effective. The board of education set up for decentralization of education administration, because of the unestablished right of educational finance, is in danger of being controlled by the prefectural governor, the mayor, or the headman of the town or village. It is not until the educational finance has been established that the new school system is complete and the system of the board of education, which operates it, is improved and consolidated. It is the most weighty and urgent question in education hereafter, that in order to establish a powerful educational system, the necessary and adequate expenditure for the existing educational system is scientifically and rationally calculated and security is shared by both state and locality according to their ability.

B. Local Educational Finance

Since the end of the war, Japan's elementary and secondary education has undergone in substance and system a radical reform on the basis of the new ideology. But due to

unlike the American, national schools occupy an important place, while public and private schools also must be largely taken care of and aided by the State. Furthermore, as to social education, science and culture, there are many tasks that need guidance and assistance. Considering these respects, the Ministry of Education should be retained as an independent ministry as before. It is also indispensable to the promotion of Japanese education, science and culture that the Minister of Education should be retained as the superintendent to have a voice for education, science and culture, and to hold himself responsible to the Diet, as a member of the Cabinet.

F. Training of Educational Leaders

After the war the Ministry of Education has conducted various short courses and study meetings for the benefit of teachers and educational administrative officials, among which what is singular both in its scale and content is the IFEL. The main prop of this short course was the fifty odd American teachers who were despatched here through the good will of the U.S. Government. The purpose of these short courses was the training of a group of leaders of new education as well as educational superintendents newly required accompanying enforcement of the Board of Education Law, and attendants were divided into six groups of educational superintendents, teacher consultants, professors of the university departments of education, administrative officials of university, and leaders of youth organizations. Teachers of the course were both Americans and Japaneses and the business side of the short course was taken care of by the Ministry of Education. Since October 1948 four courses were held for a couple of weeks each time. The first and the second course were held in schools in Tokyo, the third and the fourth courses were held at four places of Tohoku University, Tokyo University, Kyoto University and Kyushu University. The number of students is indicated in the next table.

Number of Students who finished IFEL Short Course

	I	II	III	IV	Total
Educational Superintendents	160	168	400	218	946
Teacher Consultants (Elem. Sch.)	172	176	202	315	865
Teacher Consultants (Low. & Up. Sec. Sch.)	134	118	208	264	724
Profs. of Educ. Department	—	—	—	—	—
Univ. Administrative Officials	—	420	—	1330	1750
Youth Leaders	600	—	498	212	1310

The fruit of this course is follows:—

(1) Each Attendant who was in actual service returned to his post and put into effect what he had learned at this course.

(2) About the contents of this course there was much which belongs to the new field of our educational science. Accordingly it turned out to be a good crop for the Japanese educational science.

of development of Japanese education, science and culture.

Then, at the reorganization of different bureaus and sections based on the foregoing basic duties, the following policies were adopted:

1. Separating the departments and bureaus that gave special and technical guidance and advice from those that exercised the power of administrative controls. (For example, the creation of an Administrative Bureau.)

2. Making it a rule to reorganize them completely so that they might agree with the objects of educational, scientific and cultural administration. (For instance, the Textbook and Physical Training Bureaus were dissolved and an Elementary and Secondary Education Bureau was created.)

3. Uniting the Higher Education Bureau and Science Bureau in the light of their close relationship. (Example: the Higher Education and Science Bureau)

4. Creating a bureau for research and statistics, publication and diffusion in the light of their importance. (Example: the Research and Publications Bureau)

5. Dissolving the former Textbook Bureau and Physical Training Bureau, and coordinating them into other bureaus in accordance with their respective functions.

Based on the foregoing policies, bureaus and sections as given in the separate paper are now in existence. As compared with the Ministry of Education prior to the enforcement of this law, it diminishes 2 in the number of bureaus and 6 in that of sections. Such a reduction in the number of bureaus and sections is not only a phenomenon of the Ministry of Education, but is based on the great policy taken by the Japanese Government for retrenching its whole central structure.

The new Ministry of Education is now reorganized on the whole, in accordance with the Mission Report but still handles the business of authorizing textbooks and of compiling some national textbooks transitionally. These, however, are temporary measures that are founded on the relationship of demand and supply of Japanese textbook paper, which will be transferred to the local authorities sooner or later. It is needless to say that, respecting the purport of the Mission Report, we have special advisory organs established regarding curricula, teaching materials, the establishment of private and other universities as well as other important matters, while, on the other hand, abolishing the former school inspector system, we in turn have special advisors of education, science, and culture who are working actively as the Ministry's personnel.

Only what is regrettable, however, is that as explained in Chapter 9, the Ministry of Education has only a weak voice in the establishment of educational finance, an element indispensable to the elevation of educational standards. This must be improved by all means.

Lastly, the reorganization of the central government machinery has recently raised new questions, as one of which we see the opinion in part of political circles that the Education and the Welfare Ministry should be amalgamated. As for the education and the welfare administration, there is a fundamental disparity in nature between them, the former being guiding and helping and the latter controlling. If such difference be disregarded and both ministries amalgamated, we think that there is the fear of not only reversing the newly-changed educational administration to its former state but also bringing about its inefficiency. About this matter, careful study is being made though no accurate conclusion is drawn yet. But the Ministry of Education thinks as follows: In Japanese schools

experience who have obtained the approval of both Houses of the Diet.

The National University Council can ask the Minister of Education to report on the appropriation of estimates of the national university and other important matters, reply to his questions and advise him thereon. Besides, the Minister of Education must get the approval of the National University Council beforehand in the case when he carries out such important matters regarding the national university as the drawing up of laws relative to the national university, the fundamental policy of making budget, the creation and abolition of a faculty, a graduate school, a research institute and other important research facilities.

Secondly: A senate shall be set up in each national university consisting of members over 10 but not over 30. The senate is made to reflect the just and proper will of the people on university administration by appointing for it not only the president and the representatives of professors of the very university, but also men of knowledge and experience outside it. The senate answers the president's questions, deliberates on the educational researches and operation of that university of its own accord, reports the subjects of its decision and gives advice. The president must have the opinions of the senate regarding the institution of the university's important rules, the making of draft estimates and other important matters. The foregoing two organs have not existed so far.

Thirdly: As to the senate, the organization and authority of the faculty, we are going to make clear the principles of university self-government by providing for what have been acknowledged so far.

E. Reorganization of the Ministry of Education:

Although the reconstruction of the Ministry of Education was completed by the Education Ministry Establishment Law enforced in and after June, 1949, yet the decentralization of educational administration and the reduction of the power of administrative control of the said Ministry by suggestions given in the report of the American Educational Mission, has already been realized by the School Education Law of 1947 and the Board of Education Law of 1948 before the promulgation of the first-named Law. For instance, the board of education and the prefectural governor were empowered for the chartering of schools except universities and the certification of teachers. Accordingly, it should not be said that it was not until June, 1949 that the reorganization of the Ministry of Education had been realized, but rather that, essentially, it had been performed earlier. It is only due to the foregoing Education Ministry Establishment Law that the bureaus and sections within the said Ministry have been newly reorganized and its new duties clarified. The following are the Ministry's new fundamental character and its duties:

1. Most of the educational powers have been transferred from the former centralized control agency to guiding and supporting organs according to the great principles of educational decentralization.

2. Planning the establishment of the lowest standards for a system of democratic education and also planning establishment of standards required for the elevation and diffusion of education, science and culture.

3. Attaching importance to the survey and statistics of education, science and culture, offering the use of their data throughout the country.

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4. Endeavoring to help acquire necessary funds and materials for the transitional stage

management.

(3) Officers should not be monopolized by members of a certain family.

(4) As a consulting organ to fix the duties of officers, each school juridical person has a board of trustees which reflects opinions of a wide range upon operations of the juridical person as well as school management.

(5) Those who receive left-over property of a dissolved school juridical person, are limited to some other school juridical person or to those who perform some educational enterprise.

(6) It is clearly stated that the nation (government) or local public bodies can give various aids toward a school juridical person.

This is a solution of the dubious point relative to Art. 89 of the Constitution and has a great significance at the present time when there are so many private schools which are suffering under straitened financial circumstances as will be stated in a later section.

D. Drafting of the University Control Bill

In the old-system college, particularly, university, though a highly-developed autonomy was recognized customarily, yet it was generally faculty-centered and was not without any criticism from a democratic point of view. The Ministry of Education has made a long study of legalization about securing the freedom of researches of learning by eliminating centralized controls over and improper intervention from outside towards the university and simultaneously maintaining a suitable connection of the university with society by reflecting the right and just will of the people on university administration. Starting from the so-called "Gist of University Draft Law" that CIE, GHQ, proposed to the Ministry of Education and the Education Reform Council in October, 1948, the problem of university administration reform has become a target of discussion with uncommon interest not only among those related to universities and students but also in the world at large.

As to this tentative plan, the Education Reform Council and the Conference of National University Presidents, after various examinations, worked out a revised draft from their respective standpoints and submitted it to CIE.

The Ministry of Education established a University Control Bill Drafting Conference as the Education Minister's advisory organ in September, 1949 in order that, in the light of the importance of this bill, it might look forward to its satisfactory legalization by hearing the views of all circles of society at large.

Being formed of twenty members selected out of the representatives of groups concerned and men of knowledge and experience, the Conference met ten odd times from last fall up to the end of last February and prepared a tentative plan, for which it is asking for opinions of all classes of society after releasing it to the world at large. It is so arranged that these opinions gathered, may be subjected to reexamination and public hearings be held for them. Thus, we think, we shall be able to have a definite bill and present it to the Diet not in the distant future.

Following are the main points of the idea of this tentative plan.

First: The National University Council shall be established in the Ministry of Education which consists of 23 members whom the Minister of Education appoints from among, those whom the national university presidents mutually elect, those whom the Japan Science Conference and the National Professors' Federation recommend, those people of knowledge

C. Enactment of Private School Law

Different from national or public schools, a private school is established by some private citizen or citizens and has its own school spirit and morale.

It is a desirable thing to foster such spirit freely without making interference from the outside, and to do it, the private school's independency should be respected. At the same time even a private school has a "public nature" as is prescribed in Art. 6 of the Fundamental Education Law, and any arbitrary running by the founder cannot be recognized.

Accordingly, the public nature of a private school has to be elevated. Especially in our country private schools, in the total number of schools and students, share one half of our higher and kindergarten education, and in secondary education they share 10%, in sundry school education some 90% of the entire education. In one sense they may be said to exist as substitute of national or public schools and the elevation of their 'public nature' must be greatly emphasized, viewing from the standpoint of equal opportunity of education in Japan.

Concerning respect of the independency of private schools, already at the time of enactment of School Education Law in 1947, controlling power of the concerned government office was seriously limited and supervision was only to be used on a few necessary matters regulated by laws, and the power of supervision of private schools below the upper secondary school, was transferred to the local government. As for the matter of elevation of public nature of the private school, in the Fundamental Law of Education and School Education Law, the principle is taken that the establishment and operation of a private school must be done by a special juridical person, but concerning the contents of that special juridical person it is stated that it will be fixed by a later law. With such a background and under recommendation of the Education Reform Committee, after long study and through discussion with private school authorities, with the double purpose of respect and elevation of the public nature of private schools, in 1949 the Private School Law was enacted and it went into force since March 1950. In order to respect independency of private schools, this law regulates more limitation of controlling power of the government office concerned over private schools than is prescribed in the School Education Law (i. e. concerning university, the Education Minister's control and concerning schools below the upper secondary school the prefectural governor's control), and even in case the governing office exercises such power, it should listen to the voice of the Private School Council or the Private University Council consisting of representatives of private schools, thus to avoid the former one-sided transaction of the governing body. Moreover, appointment of representatives of the two P. S. councils above mentioned is done by recommendation of P. S. bodies and in this way respect of independency of P. S. has been made more thorough: The P. S. Council has been set up in each prefecture and the Private University Council was set up in the Ministry of Education.

Then the elevation of the public nature of a school juridical person which forms the subject of the P. S. establishment, has been realized by changing its organization as follows:—

(1) The regular number of officers was legally made larger than a certain fixed number to avoid arbitrary action of a few officers.

(2) Standards for election of officers were fixed. Also the school principal is commonly made a director to let him adjust both phases of school education and school

tremely low in efficiency, As for the demand and supply of teachers, local boards themselves cannot settle the matter but are trying to improve teacher's quality or filling their vacancies through an interchange of the teachers with other communities at large. Accordingly, unless there are very special needs, it is not appropriate for a town or a village to create its own board of education and naturally a large area-unit must be sought. As to the rights of a city, town or village boards of education, we think, it deserves reconsideration from their relationship with those of the prefectural one. Also, though, institutionally speaking, the prefectural and the city, town or village boards of education have all equal rights with no upper or lower relation whatsoever, yet in future when the latter have been universally established, some legal measures will have to be taken that will make their relationship closer and more reasonable. The greatest question raised when a local board of education is created in a larger area than a small community, is that of educational expenses. According to the existing taxation system (recommended by Mr. Shoup), the city, town or village is a unit—each an important unit, and though a certain large area beyond a community is established as a unit of educational administration, we shall be obliged to depend for its financial resources on the component towns and villages. In this case, complicated and difficult questions are expected of the rate of the burden and method of sharing. Subsequently, above anything else, unless the security of financial sources for education or the guarantee of educational expenses is legislated, it will essentially be very difficult to create a local board of education.

Lastly, we must mention the readjustment of guidance organization as an important aspect of reform. The former school inspector was busily occupied with administrative affairs besides educational guidance, and defects of his work were sharply criticized in the American Educational Mission report. To replace such a system of school inspectors, in accordance with the recommendations of the report, the Board of Education Law has come to establish that of teacher consultants who give suggestion and guidance to the principal and teachers, but issue no orders nor exercise any supervision. As for the teacher consultant, six or 10 odd are now placed in each prefecture. In the board of education in a certain city, one fourth of the members are occupied by teacher consultants. Generally speaking, however, the fixed number of teacher consultants is small in the Board of Education. There are many cases, therefore, where they have so large a field of different schools under their charge (elementary, lower and upper secondary school), that it is apparently difficult for them to exercise any thoroughgoing guidance of courses and specialities.

A certification system has been newly adopted for the teacher consultant, for which a remarkable improvement of his quality is seen as compared with the former school inspector. Moreover, in-service education like the IFEL workshop and others has come to effect annually since 1948, bending its energies on the training of competent Educational superintendent and teacher consultants. It is reported that, thus, their activities are welcomed by the teachers with steadily mounting achievements.

On the other hand, it has been prescribed that the Board of Education be sure to have departments and sections related to educational research and statistics, thus consolidating a system that supports the teacher consultant's activity. Further the establishment of these departments and sections relative to research and statistics in the provinces, together with that of the Research and Publications Bureau in the Ministry of Education, will speed up educational administration scientifically, rationally and efficiently.

tion is guaranteed by law, but the decisive power lies with the Assembly, prefectural governor, mayor or village headman, as ever, which puts it under their control at all times. (We will describe this later on). As regards the establishment or abolition of a school, the Board of Education can not carry it through at its own will, but must largely count on the Assembly for decision. Regarding school construction, inasmuch as it is also made a rule to entrust it to the prefectural governor, mayor or village headman, (specifically to their auxiliary organ, the public works and construction department or section), powers of the conclusion of contracts and the payment of building expenses are not in the hands of the Board, for which there are many cases of its being subjected to their intervention ranging over the details.

(4) On educational finances:

Local educational finances are now taken care of by general resources for local finances, and as mentioned above, no final decisive power for educational estimates is given to the Board of Education. Into the bargain, no fixed amount of educational expenses is secured, nor their fixed standard guaranteed, and it is natural that the decision of educational expenses should be controlled substantially by the Assembly, prefectural governor, mayor or village headman that holds political power and grasps financial sources. Besides, there is now no system of guaranteeing educational expenses to replace that of the Government defrayment of the expenditure of compulsory education that has been abrogated which places the Board of Education in an extremely difficult position. As to expenditure, the prefectural governor, mayor, or village master steps in largely, and there are some instances of the Board's independent expenditure being prevented even within its allotted estimates. Under these circumstances, it should be said that the security of standard educational expenses, the guarantee of their fixed rate on a national scale and the establishment of financial power of the Board of Education are real props to the system of the Board of Education, and their realization is a pressing problem.

(5) On business under the jurisdiction of the Board of Education:

Affairs of the schools below the upper secondary and of social education, culture and science come under the jurisdiction of the Board of Education while those of public universities and private schools come under that of the prefectural governor. As far as schools are concerned, however, there are views for the propriety of the Board of Education taking exclusive charge of all school affairs. Private school matters are separately handled through the advisory agency of a Private School Council, and even though they may be transferred to the jurisdiction of the Board of Education, there is no restricting the freedom of private schools, and it is better from the standpoint of business simplification.

(6) On the unit of local Board of Education establishment:

The last but not the least question is that of the unit of establishment and competency of local Boards of Education which should be created in all communities by 1952. At present, there are boards of education in 44 cities, towns and villages besides the 5 larger cities, among most of which the superintendent holds the additional post of school principal and has no teacher consultant, under him, which makes both clerical work and guidance ex-

of the Board of Education in the eye of law, institution and practical operation, which must be overcome by our best efforts. The following may be given as some of the problems that the Board of Education confronts:

(1) On the election of members of the Board of Education:

Members of the Board of Education are directly elected by popular vote of the inhabitants. This is undoubtedly a thoroughgoing system of educational democratization, of which no one will be against the objective. The current condition of our society, however, is eventually somewhat deterring the people from reflecting their just and fair will upon the Board of Education and the citizen members from entering into it being far from the aims of the direct election. The reasons are: (a) The general people scarcely understand the system of the Board of Education and also are little concerned about it; as the result, the rate of abstention from voting is fairly high, while it is open to the domination of ambitious people with one scheme or another; (b) We can see the tendency that the teachers' union controls the Board of Education through its representatives elected into the membership by availing itself of its organized power. Actually, one third of the membership of the prefectural Boards of Education are occupied by ex-teachers; (c) The single constituency system causes election expenses to run high. (Some prefectures have a population of as many as a million or two). So, the real conditions are that none can be elected but ambitious persons of wealth or with an organized sphere of influence. Particularly, inasmuch as a non-partisan election is recommended, any partisan campaign is impossible, which makes us feel that the teachers' union is the sole master of the field. (This is an outline of the election in 1948). Accordingly, the trend is that this election is going to be identical with other political elections. Thus, the election of members of the Board of Education which ought to be kept aloof from whatever political party, is full of danger of being made a tool of political strife. It is for this reason that there are now strong opinions for the recommendation system or the limited election method in regard to the election of its members.

(2) On the operation of the Board of Education:

Generally, though the relationship between the Educational members and the Educational superintendent is becoming smoother and smoother, yet, where there are many members of ex-teachers, they are apt to interfere with the particulars of administrative business, especially to take interest in personnel affairs, which sometimes fails to realize the good point or merit of an organic combination of the non-professional civil member and the professional educational administrator. On the contrary, where there are civil members of good understanding and sense, the operation is satisfactory with good results.

(3) On its relationship with the Assembly of the local public entity, the prefectural governor, the city or town mayor or the village headman:

The standing and power of the local Assembly, prefectural governor, mayor and village headman are quite consolidated owing to their long tradition, and, moreover, their standing is guaranteed by Local Autonomy Law published in the year prior to the institution of the Board of Education Law. Consequently, the newly-established Board of Education has to suffer their legislative and political interference in many respects. First of all, as to the educational budget, as mentioned above, the relative independency of the Board of Educa-

white-heat debate there, the Government-presented bill passed with a substantial revision, and, with the first election on October 5, 1948, the first Board of Education in this country was finally to see the light on November 1 of that year.

The Board of Education, being characterized as an organ of the local public entity which has to itself the executive power of education, science and culture in that district, must be set up in all prefectures, cities, towns and villages. According to the financial conditions, however, it was arranged that the prefectures and five major cities only create one compulsorily and others voluntarily by 1950. Based on that arrangement, 46 communities established one in 1948. (Of these, the Boards of Education in two towns disappeared owing to the abolition, establishment and coordination of communities.) Afterwards, the time of its establishment was postponed to 1950 or 1952 for cities and to 1952 for towns and villages. On November 10, this year, the election of half the membership of the Board of Education established in 1948, and the first election of membership of the Board of Education in the city that desires its formation are to be conducted simultaneously.

The Board of Education Law has been subjected to a fairly substantial revision to correct its former defects and shortcomings this year (1950) and we will outline below its system for your information:

The Board of Education is divided into two kinds, one on a prefectural level, which is formed of 7 members, and the other on a city, town or village, level with 5 members. One of these members is to be elected out of the Assembly members of the local government concerned and his tenure of office lasts as long as he is an assemblyman. The other members are to be elected directly by the inhabitants in general, whose tenure of office is 4 years with an alternative system of 2 years of half of the members.

The Board of Education has an Educational superintendent with 4-year tenure of office. He must have a certificate and, under the direction and supervision of the Board of Education, is to take charge of all educational business, give advice and recommendation to the Board and also he can become the chief of its secretariat. The prefectural, and the city, town or village Board of Education, excepting that the former takes exclusive charge of certification and some other items of business, have the same rights, rights that they control the schools and other educational institutions set up by the local public entities concerned, and appoint and dismiss their personnel. As to educational finances, the Board of Education sends an original budget bill to the chief of the local public entity concerned, who submits it to its Assembly. In the case of trying to revise the original bill, the chief must ask for the opinion of the Board of Education beforehand while, when presenting a revised bill to the Assembly, he has to add the original draft of the Board of Education and sources of revenue for it.

Inasmuch as the Board of Education is quite a new system in our country, there is a great deal yet to be desired in its operation due to lack of understanding and unfamiliarity. But with the will of the people at the background, and with the enthusiasm and endeavor of such interested parties as the members or the superintendent of the Board of Education, we are dashing forward for the realization of our desired end. Particularly, the foregoing system has deepened the people's interest in education and is accelerating the democratization of education. Furthermore, the suggestion and assistance for CIE and the Civil Affairs Team as well as the guidance that the American lecturers of IFEL gave four times, have brought about very helpful results. But there lie many difficulties ahead

come to the following three:

First, it is the principle of the democratization of educational administration. It is only by this principle that it is prescribed in Article 10 (educational administration) of the Fundamental Law for Education that you should carry on education by holding yourselves responsible for the entire nation. This principle, concretely, means that, bringing down the former bureaucratic uniformity and formalism, you should respect the just and fair will of the people in the educational administration. It is most distinctly represented in the adoption of the system of a Board of Education, and it is required that democratic steps should be taken in the creation of these systems. Whereas it was customary with the old educational laws that they were provided for by order, it is prescribed by law that new ones, as far as they are important matters, should be subjected to Diet decision, and also, when drawing up these bills, the Ministry of Education based them on the opinions of the Educational Reform Council (Committee) and other advisory organs or has largely taken them in. Further, when providing for orders excepting laws relative to education and determining policies of the operation of educational administration, the Ministry of Education, established as many as 18 special councils, to value their opinions and deal with them fairly and democratically.

Secondly, it is the principle of decentralization of educational administration. Excluding the former principle of centralization, we have sweepingly carried through the decentralization of educational administration according to the spirit of a local autonomy of the new constitution. After the termination of hostilities, the powers of the Mombusho have been transferred to local districts one after another, and now that the board of education has been set up, the Ministry of Education has no direct control over elementary and secondary education, and is now a mere organ of service to give special and technical help and counsel to the local educational authorities. Here, "the vertical lines of authority and responsibility have been evidently cut off, as the American Educational Mission expresses in its report.

Thirdly, it is the principle of security of educational independence. As specified in Article 10 of the Fundamental Law for Education, education must not be subjected to undue control, but secure its independence. Education grows only in a free atmosphere. Educational administration should not wield its powers to education, but, as clearly stated in Article 10 of the Fundamental Law for Education, must be aimed at the arrangement and establishment of prerequisites for the achievement of the objectives of education. Simultaneously, as to educational administration, we have taken various measures for the security of its independence so that it may not be immersed in the necessity of other general administration.

B. Reform of Local Educational Administration

The old local educational administration by prefectural governors and their auxiliary agencies underwent a fundamental change through the formation (in 1948) of the Board of Education taken which had more than one year and a half or so after the recommendations of the American Educational Mission. In the meantime, after its careful study at the instance of the Educational Reform Committee, the Ministry of Education drew up a Board of Education Bill and presented it to the second session of the Diet. After a

E. Publication of National Language White Paper.

By the proposal of its committee itself to set up a democratic organ of deliberation fully representing the wills of the various circles in regard to the national language policy and the Ministry of Education's plan for the same purpose, the National Language Council underwent a radical reform and was newly created according to the Cabinet order based upon the Ministry of Education Establishment Law.

In order to form its character as the supreme technical organ of deliberation over the national language and also as a perfect democratic organ of deliberation, and making it the point of its operation to obtain a fair and wise conclusion for the national language reform, the newly-born National Language Council is making its new activities.

And with the view to clarifying its character and administrative policy, the Council, first of all, concentrated its deliberation on firmly grasping the present condition of the national language and on the points wherein the questions lie in the national language and then on arranging them objectively. As the result, in June 1950 the "Outline of the Problems of the National Language" was written and submitted to the Minister of Education.

The Outline of the Problems of the National Language, generally known as the national language white paper, consists of the five chapters of (1) Character and Duties of the National Language Council, (2) Present condition and Analysis of the National Language, (3) Historical View of the Problems of the National Language, (4) Various Organs concerning the National Language, (5) Standard of Deliberation over the Problems of the National Language, the last of which will make a powerful contribution to the progress of the national language reform program hereafter.

The standard for deliberating questions of the national language has been set at whether or not the developments can (1) simplify compulsory education, (2) facilitate our linguistic life in general, especially our using and understanding Japanese characters (monji), (3) make a language capable of being used by the general public, (4) help us create or inherit culture and civilization, etc., but it goes without saying that the day is awaited when the results of deliberation gained from this standard, work powerfully on the reform of the national language.

Chapter VIII. The Reform of Educational Administration

A. Principles of Reform

By the enactment and enforcement of a series of the regulations of new educational administration covering the School Education Law (1947), Board of Education Law (1948), Ministry of Education Establishment Law and Private School Law (1949), our educational administration has undergone reforms one after another at its root. Meanwhile of course, it is what has been suggested by the recommendations given in the American Educational Mission report that had acted as the guiding principles of the reforms. They, summarized,

not very immediately be settled unless after some conclusion is reached by the deliberate, democratic, and scientific management of the Council. What is best to do will be to wait for the deliberate decision by the Conference, and not commit the "foolishness of being too hasty" in trying to crack this hardest nut.

D. Creation of National Institute of National Language

Reform of the national language is, as has been called by the (first) American Education Mission to Japan, a heavy task. In order to do this work, both for the purpose of making solid the scientific basis of the reform program and of making the program democratic and effective, it is necessary to set up a powerful organ of technical research and a democratic deliberative organ of many enlightened people.

From this point of view, the Ministry of Education had been working on the program for creating a national institute of the national language since 1946, and was supported in this view by the National Language Council and enlightened civilians who were loudly crying for the need of establishing a large-scale organ for research in the Japanese language. For instance, in September 1947 the National Language Council suggested the advisability of the establishment to the Ministry of Education, and the next year the Houses of Representatives and Councillors of the Diet adopted the resolution by civilians of a "petition concerning the creation of an organ for research in the national language and letter."

And the outcome of the efforts of the Mombusho authorities was that in November, 1947 the National Institute of the National Language Establishment Law obtained the decision of both the Houses and in December of the same year this institute came into being.

The National Institute of the National Language, as is shown in the preamble of the Establishment Law, aims at making scientific surveys and researches concerning the national language and the linguistic life of the people, and, in addition, at building a solid basis for the rationalization of the national language and is steadily making research activities. The research activities are concentrated on (1) survey and research concerning the linguistic life and linguistic culture today, (2) survey and research concerning the historical development of the national language, (3) survey and research concerning the object, method and result of national language education, and (4) research concerning languages for many people to hear at the sametime—like the newspaper language, the broadcasting language, etc.; and we are looking forward for the day when these researches will contribute to the reform and development of the national language and the education and general culture of this country by helping to (1) make reference data for drafting the national language policy, (2) compile, preserve and publish data for research in the national language, (3) compile and publish the current Japanese dictionary, the dialectal Japanese dictionary, the historical Japanese dictionary and other results of researches.

Moreover, it is to be kept on record that the planning for this institute was made by over-all deliberation of the establishing committee formed of enlightened officials and civilians, and that the institute is being run at the advice of the board of trustees chosen democratically. All this is noticeable as a concrete example of democratic procedure for creating and operating organs of research.

Roman letter education is as follows :

	No. of school giving R. L. ed.	To'al No. of Schools	%
Elementary	17,470	20,745	84.3
Lower Sec.	5,707	11,619	48.1

Of this the percentage of schools adopting Roman letter education is as follows by different styles.

	Gov. style	%	Nippon style	%	Standard st.	%	Others	%
Elem.	10,999	62.9	1,678	9.6	3,991	22.8	802	4.6
Lower Sec.	2,645	46.4	450	8.8	2,366	41.5	245	4.3

List of Number of Demands for Roman Letter Textbooks (2 July 1950)

	1948		1949		1950		Total	
	Elem.	Low. Sec.	Elem.	Low. Sec.	Elem.	Low. Sec.	Elem.	Low. Sec.
National	3,287,530	1,600,902	3,137,895	697,691	2,405,000	260,434	8,830,425	2,559,027
	973,636	1,353,239	1,305,495	663,704	953,912	224,938	3,233,043	2,241,881
	4,261,166	2,954,141	4,443,390	1,361,395	3,358,912	485,372	12,063,468	4,800,908
Authorized	—	—	—	—	280,556	162,257	280,556	162,257
	—	—	374,613	—	735,165	52,985	1,109,778	52,985
	—	—	128,757	—	324,151	198,780	452,908	198,780
	—	—	503,370	—	1,339,872	414,022	1,843,242	414,022
Nat. & Auth.	4,261,166	2,954,141	4,946,760	1,361,395	4,698,784	899,394	13,906,710	5,214,930
Total	7,215,307		6,308,155		5,598,178		19,121,640	
						Nat.	16,864,376	
						Auth.	2,257,264	

In 1948 the Ministry of Education founded the “Roman Letters Research Association”, for the purpose of making researches and studying general problems pertaining to Roman letters in general. The Association had been carrying on detailed scientific study of the method of spelling in Roman letters and of the principles of Roman letter education, when in 1950 it was reorganized, forming the Division Conference of Roman letters of the Japanese Language Council, which is still continuing its business. How to spell in Roman letters is one of the most vital questions among the theorists on Roman letters, which will

Proposition of writing Japanese horizontally from left to right has long been discussed as a chief theme of language reform and also from the standpoint of efficiency science. This has been well adopted in government circles concerning business papers, which gives a remarkable example of the progress of language reform since the war.

C. The Execution of Roman Letter Education

It would not do to decide very hastily on whether the Roman letters should have the priority as the national letter. However, to be able to transcribe the national language in Roman letters will be of valid educational significance for the people, with a view to its need in the daily life of the people which are expected to be of more and more international character and to its utility for cultivating the ground for the people to pass independent, upright, and just judgments on the value of Chinese characters, kana letters, and Roman letters.

From such a standpoint, the Education Ministry established in 1946, the Roman Letter Education Council, whose democratic discussion has led itself to the execution of Roman letter education in the Elementary and Lower Secondary Schools all over the country from April 1947, on the basis of the "Principle of Roman Letter Education." and "Opinions on the Operation of Roman Letter Education."

The principles of execution were:

- (1) It will be decided upon by the school principal whether the Roman letter education is to be operated or not;
- (2) The Roman letter education will be given in Grade 4 and above (in specific case, in Grade 3) of the Elementary School, with about 40 periods throughout the year; and
- (3) The primary aim of Roman letter education should be to thoroughly diffuse the education of the National Language. The initiation of the education of the National Language through Roman letters is an epochal event in the history of the education of the nation

One of the greatest difficulties in the execution of Roman letter education was the question of spelling. The temporary measure taken was to set the standard in the Instruction style, while giving freedom to the choice of the other two, the Standardized style and the Nippon style. The question of how to spell Roman letters still remains for further studies, and the Conference advised the Government to establish appropriate research and examination organs which will make deliberate researches. On this basis, the Ministry of Education has established the Roman Letter Research Council for the purpose of pursuing the questions to be solved.

On this principle, the Ministry of Education has compiled and published its textbook for Roman Letter Education. It has also been engaged in studying the "Evaluation of Roman Letter Education", as well as the contents and the methods of the education; has been operating at several places of the country "Roman Letter Education Discussion Conference", for the purpose of giving advices to teacher consultants and stimulants to the teaching of Japanese Language; and after all it has done its best in promoting the Roman letter education. The current state of Roman letter education at the Elementary and Lower Secondary Schools is as shown by the following several examples.

According to the survey made in February 1950, the number of schools which operate

them according to the present day Chinese standard sounds. This proposal is practised in broadcasts, news-papers etc. to a considerable extent.

B. Improvement of Official Language

As a noticeable fact of language reform since the war, we have to record that the general official language, especially the formal official language in the government circles has been simplified and made easier. The special feature of simplification of the official language is the adoption of spoken language to make its style easier. To meet the need of diffusion of democracy and of language reform, soon after the war even the imperial rescript and message which should take a most rigid formal style as a representative document of the nation, began to be written in the spoken language. This epoch-making simplification of language style was applied to the new Constitution, and then all official papers have come to adopt the spoken style. Private banks and companies also supported this policy and at present nearly all official papers both governmental and private, are written in the spoken language. The Government's adoption of spoken language for higher efficiency of governmental business and its efforts made for simplification and easification of the official language are worthy to be praised as it was actually done by GHQ.

The improvement work of official language in government circles has been carried on since '46 chiefly by the Education Ministry and most powerfully by a joint structure of all government offices which worked in cooperation. The first work undertaken was establishment of "the standard to easify governmental language" by Vice-Ministers' conference in June, '46 which was drafted by the Education Ministry. Then under joint study of various ministries, besides that standard, concrete technical referential matters about use of *okurigana* (supplementary syllabary for reading Chinese characters), examples of Chinese words changed into spoken Japanese, etc. were discussed and decided and as a result "a guidebook of official language", an enlightening literature, was born and in December of the same year at the Vice-Ministers' conference principle of writing official documents was decided upon, based on this book, and was notified to all government offices that they should follow this guidebook in preparing official papers.

Then study of higher efficiency and simplification of official language was accelerated by establishment of the "Official Language Improvement Conference" in the Cabinet consisting of intelligent people both from government circles and the general public in June, '48. At this conference a full study and discussion was made upon letter, words, style, form of writing and other matters concerning the official language, and its report was submitted to the Prime Minister in March, '49, which was approved of and acted on by the Cabinet meeting and was notified to each ministry for practice.

This "Report on the Official Language Improvement Conference" shows fully and concretely in its principal part "Improvement of Official Language" the standards of easification of official language on three items of term & letter, style, way of writing, and what is specially useful is the new way of writing which is shown therein. That is, it adopts the principle of writing horizontally from left to right largely of governmental business papers with a view to increasing writing efficiency.

zation of old times to be followed, and forces the same use of syllabic signs as in the "Old Japanese" even if the standard pronunciation of a certain word is much changed in these days.

Therefore, these criteria were naturally very complicated and difficult for the people of the present day, especially for the younger generation, and had to be revised in order to expand the functions of expression and communication which the language possesses. It becomes all the more difficult to represent the modern language with symbols in accordance with the classical representation standards, when the restriction on Chinese characters is put into force which brings about the increase of necessity to represent words by means of syllabaries. For this reason, the "historical use of Japanese syllabic signs" should offer its place, at least with regard to the modern language, to a more modernized and efficient one both from the point of view of educational efficiency and from the necessity of taking effective measures which results from the restriction on Chinese characters.

Out of such needs, the Japanese Language Council, side by side with the deliberation on the Chinese character restriction program, carried on deliberation and research with a view to getting the plan of reforming the use of Japanese syllabic signs. Finally, it completed "the Modern Use of Japanese Syllabic Signs" and reported it to the Minister of Education. It was approved by the Government and was officially prescribed by Cabinet Notification and put into effect by Cabinet Instruction in November, 1946.

By this decision the Japanese language came to be written in accordance with this "Modern Use"; and the leading newspapers have also adopted the way of representation under the "Modern Use", in cooperation with the Government, just as in case of the Table of Chinese Characters for Present Use. It needs no mentioning that this "Modern Use" has come to be used in the educational field as long as the present-day Japanese is concerned.

At any rate, the revision of the use of Japanese syllabic signs, especially simultaneous with the restriction on Chinese characters, will be long recorded as the greatest instance which testifies the vigorous progress of the reform of language in post-war Japan.

(6) Reform of "Way of Writing Chinese Place Names and Chinese People's Names"

There are various facts to be recorded in connection with the restriction of Chinese characters, such as the efforts for the simplification of scientific and technical terms, improvement of typewriters for the Japanese language, and many others. Especially, the deliberation and research concerning the reform of 'the way of Writing Chinese Place Names and Chinese Peoples' Names' requires special attention.

The "Chinese Characters for Present Use" in principle excludes proper names; however the use of varied Chinese characters for proper names such as names, persons names, etc. brings about many problems in thoroughly carrying out the purport of restriction of Chinese characters.

Especially, the difficulty is noteworthy in connection with Chinese proper names. The Japanese Language Council paid attention to this point and made deliberation and research concerning the way of writing Chinese proper names. At last it made a proposal and submitted the "Way of Writing Chinese Place Names and Chinese Peoples' Names" to the Minister of Education in June, 1949. The fundamental principles given in it are (1) to write Chinese place names and Chinese peoples' names by means of Japanese syllabaries, and (2) to write

(3) Establishment and Practice of the Annexed Table of Chinese Characters for Present Use (Chinese Characters for Compulsory Education)

The Table of Chinese Characters for Present Use was prepared as the Chinese characters restriction program for general society. However, in order to lighten the children's burden of studying Chinese characters and raise the level of educational contents in compulsory education, it is necessary to establish a specific plan therefore. According to this policy the Japanese Language Council, upon completion of the Table of Chinese Characters for Present use, continued deliberation and research. After all its efforts, the Council finally selected 881 characters as necessary to be taught in the course of compulsory education so that children become able to both read and write them, and submitted to the Minister of Education the final plan of the Annexed Table of Chinese Characters for Present Use. The Government adopted and officially decided this, Annexed Table of Chinese Characters for Present Use by Cabinet Notification and put it into practice by Cabinet Instruction in February, 1948.

(4) Establishment and Practice of the Table of the Styles of Chinese Characters for Present Use.

Complexity in the usage of Chinese characters arises not only from the large number and varied reading of the characters mentioned before but also to the lack of uniformity in their styles and the intricacy in the formation of ideographs to a considerable extent. The Japanese Language Council arranged the styles of characters included in the Table of Chinese Characters for Present Use and endeavored to set up their standards, in order to simplify and make easy and correct the reading and writing of Chinese characters. After all its deliberation and study, the Council obtained its final plan "the Table of Styles of Chinese Characters for Present Use" and submitted it to the Minister of Education.

The Government adopted this "Table of Styles of Chinese Characters for Present Use." It officially established this Table by Cabinet Notification and put it into practice by Cabinet Instruction in April, 1949.

(5) Establishment and Practice of Modern Use of Japanese Syllabic Signs.

The improvement of the Use of syllabic signs is, side by side with the restriction on Chinese characters, a requisite for simplifying the method of expressing by symbols the Japanese language, and has been an important problem in the history of the reform of the Japanese language since Meiji era. Simultaneously with the establishment and practice of the Table of Chinese Characters for Present Use, the use of Japanese syllabic signs was reformed in accordance with the plan prepared by the Japanese Language Council. The modern Use of Japanese Syllabic Signs which forms the general criteria which should be followed in cases where the modern Japanese is represented by syllabic signs in accordance with the modern speech sounds, was established and put into practice. It is an epoch-making event in the reform of Japanese language as well as the Chinese Characters for Present Use.

The use of Japanese syllabic signs which has been taught in school education since Meiji Era was "the historical one". This "historical use" requires the language symboli-

with kana syllabary, and for that purpose we must put our hand on limitation of the number of Chinese characters. There is agreement on this point in all quarters. Therefore, it was very natural that right after the war since the fall of 1945 the National Language Council has made an effort to prepare the plan of limitation of Chinese characters.

After the limitation plan of Chinese characters by the Language Council had undergone much change in course of deliberation and discussion, and as will later be touched upon, the committee decided on the policy of establishing two plans of limitation i. e. the plan of making limitation of Chinese characters used in people's daily life and the plan of limitation which aims to require both reading and writing of a certain number of Chinese characters in our compulsory education, and under such clear objectives deliberation was carried on. Concerning the former, the result of the committee's study appeared in the garb of "the List of daily used Chinese characters" in November, 1946, which was reported to the Education Minister, decided by the Cabinet meeting and publicly announced by the government. And it was notified by the Cabinet instruction that within the government circles, use of Chinese characters must follow this list. Major press companies started using this new list of Chinese characters of daily use.

As it appears in its foreword, the list of daily-use Chinese characters is prepared "aiming to limit the use of Chinese characters without causing trouble in the life of the people and with such care it fixed" the scope of their use in law, official document, newspaper, magazine and in general public" and selected as many as 1,850 character.

Since the scope of its use in law, official document, newspaper and in general public is fixed, and since actually government organs and newspapers are using Chinese characters according to this list, it is quite natural that it should also be applied in educational circles. The Ministry decided to use this in elementary and secondary education and in textbooks description is made, following this list all in all, except a few technical and scientific terms and proper nouns.

(2) Establishment and Practice of the Table of Japanese and Chinese Readings of Chinese Characters for Present Use.

The Table of Chinese Characters for Present Use was prepared to set up a limit for the Chinese characters to be used in general society (i. e. the number and kinds of Chinese characters for use). However, the restriction on the number and the kind is not sufficient in order to relieve the difficulties and inefficiency in the use of Chinese characters. It is at the same time required to restrict the readings (Chinese and Japanese readings) of the Chinese characters to a certain extent.

As soon as the Table of Chinese Characters for Present Use was instituted, the Japanese Language Council began to endeavor for preparing and deliberating on the plan of arranging and restricting the Chinese and Japanese readings of the characters, and submitted the final plan to the Minister of Education in September, 1947. This Table of Japanese and Chinese Readings of Chinese Characters for Present Use was notified by the Cabinet and was directed by the Cabinet Instruction to be put into practice, in February, 1948, just like the Table of Chinese Characters for Present Use.

However, before we take up the problem concerning final choice of the national letter, we must contemplate that there is an important condition which we should consider together with the progress of the scientific research. That is, in order to give birth to a new condition of the national language, unless a new speech expression is created which at its root is naturally born from the freshness of our life itself, real language reform cannot be attained.

Viewed from the essence of speech, there is a clear limitation in any artificial or political reform program. Reconstruction of a language is fundamentally not a thing "which can be done", but is something "which is naturally born". Therefore, true language reform can be realized only when our fresh way of thinking and feeling toward human life or our deep love and knowledge toward speech expression becomes generalized in our society.

Thus considered, so long as the language reform is a task which intends to establish completely a "language for the entire Japanese people", its realization belongs to a distant future. We cannot but recognize that its progress after the war is yet very incomplete and not thorough-going. And such incompleteness can be discovered not only in the essential aspect of speech as mentioned before, but also in familiar facts around us.

In the first place, the present reform program mainly aims to improve the literary transcription system, and does not attempt to realize easification and rationalization of speech itself which forms the basis of the transcription system nor does it try to realize a new aesthetic form. Unless the speech itself is reconstructed to attain the state of simplicity, clearness and true beauty, reform of literary transcription system cannot sufficiently achieve its effect.

In the second place, the remarkable weakness of our modern speech, esp. the weakness of one spoken language must be reflected upon. The extreme separation of spoken language from the written one, proves not only to be a great hindrance to higher efficiency, but it turns to be a still greater defect in the psychological and aesthetic phases of our social life. As a concrete example we may mention the fact that the art of sound-speech has greatly degenerated at the present time, and the speech-art in general which is crowned by "poetry" lacks much in its aspect of being an "ear" art and tends to be exclusively an "eye" art. Therefore, for real progress of language reform, understanding and cooperation of many speech artists, such as poets, authors, actors, musicians, etc., and especially their creative activities, are absolutely necessary. Our hearty desire today is to see that the activities of literary people who have created our modern literature since Meiji era by establishing a new style called the "colloquial style", will expand it in a still wider scope of the national language. Confronted with such a difficult task as the language reform we cannot but help expecting the appearance of a Dante or a Goethe in our midst.

A. Simplification of Letter and Transcription Method.

(1) Establishment and enactment of the List of daily-use Chinese characters

There may be various views concerning final decision of our national letter. In so far as we take the realistic attitude toward realization of language reform by giving as little harm as possible to our life-habit and cultural tradition, we must first of all attempt simplification and rationalization of our habitual form of transcribing Chinese characters mixed

said to be an epoch-making period not only for our history of education, but also for the history of the national language which may be called the incarnation of our people's spirit.

The American Education Mission which visited our country in '46 declared judiciously, courteously yet firm'y "that language reform problem evidently requires the closest attention. Language reform throws its light on all fields of educational program from elementary school up to university. Unless there be a satisfactory solution of this problem, achievement of educational objectives which have been agreed upon will become very difficult." On simplification of language and letter which had been a pending question since Meiji era, the Mission left helpful suggestions and advices from an objective and international viewpoint.

Prior to this event and right after the war a language reform program chiefly centered in limiting the number of Chinese characters, was prepared on the government's part by the "People's Language Movement Federation", and there was also a loud cry in society for language reform. By the recommendation of the American Education Mission which influenced various fields of our society, undertaking of our language reform was greatly accelerated. Yet all attempts of language reform after the war did not touch upon the final and fundamental problem of "what sort of letter should be adopted for the common use of our people?"

The recommendation of the said Mission which reads "to adopt by all means some sort of Roman letters for general use" is not altogether convincing for us, if it means abolishment of all Chinese characters and kana alphabet (syllabary) & "adoption of some kind of phonetic transcription method instead", according to their expression. Our attitude and way of thinking taken on this final problem is still very judicious and we are still making a scientific, cultural, practical, historical research on a large scale, until we reach the final conclusion approved of by the entire nation. This does not mean that we feel attracted toward the speech culture of the past and hesitate to make a radical change. Though we appreciate our friends' recommendation, yet we want to solve this fundamental problem by a careful study and through our own effort. As will be stated later the National Language Research Institute has already been established. This is a realization of our desire to establish a reliable research foundation for the solution of our serious, difficult and final problem. Now five years after the war our attitude and idea toward the final task of language reform is concentrated in making a sure foundation for its solution. Suppose we enumerate a few outstanding facts concerning language reform after the war: — They may be summarized in the three following items: —

- (1) Limitation of use of Chinese characters by simplifying letters and transcription method, and revision of rules of vocabulary transcription by means of kana (syllabary)
- (2) Simplification of official language with regard to its style.
- (3) Language education by means of Roman lettering.

In connection with such reform work of language itself, establishment or reorganization of some important organizations relative to the reform, have to be mentioned. We mean the establishment of the National Language Research Institute, reorganization of the Japanese Language Council, and publication of the Language White Paper which describes the latter's activities.

To be sure the work of Language reform has made a remarkable progress since the war.

near Montréal, Canada, (4) International Seminar on Improvement of Textbooks at Brussels, Belgium, (5) World Braille Unification Conference at Unesco House at Paris and (6) International Conference of Universities at Nice. Japan sent representatives to all of the meetings from (1) to (5), and intends to do so also to the meeting of (6).

Also for the first time one Unesco fellowship was offered to a Japanese national in the field of adult education this year. The selection of the candidates for the fellowship has already been completed.

For three months from February to April of 1950 three officials of the Ministry of Education and the Ministry of Foreign Affairs visited the United States by the invitation of its government to study and observe the activities and organization for Unesco in the country. This gave no small impetus to the Unesco movements in Japan.

Last but not least a few words may be said about the Unesco movements by Japanese students. They are getting gradually more active with about fifty student clubs already formed for this purpose all over the country. The student movement in this country was recognized abroad, with the result that they received the invitation to join the international organization of the student movement called SMUN (Student Movement for the United Nations). Two Japanese students are going to attend the General Assembly of SMUN to be held at Geneva in September 1950.

Chapter VII. Present Condition of Language Reform

Educational reforms have been performed over all fields of education and on a grand scale and fundamentally, among which a fundamental and most important one is that of the national language.

Needless to say the problem of the national language and letter affects not only the field of science and education, but also it has a serious fundamental relation to the life of the people itself. Consequently, the problem of language reform not only forms the basic phase of educational reform, but it has the grave significance of revolutionalizing our culture and people's life from its very bottom. The policy obviously taken to meet such a serious fundamental problem after the war was, to get rid of the language difficulty which hinders promotion of the standard of people's culture as well as elevation of efficiency of our social life, and to disseminate the letter transcription and speech-expression which are beneficial for the entire nation. To be more specific, it was an undertaking to simplify and make the national letter and language easier. That our language in its letter system and convention of speech expression has the defect of becoming a heavy burden on young people in their education and also has the defect of being inefficient and improper to the requirement of modern social life has often been pointed out by intelligent people since the Meiji era, who apprehended, attempted and exerted themselves for its reform. However, until a ripe opportunity arrived after the war, efforts made by intelligent people for language reform, and the weak efforts which had been continued by the government did not bear fruit to become a common social factor. It was a pending problem of many years from modern Japan which could take a concrete form only when the foundation of democracy had been firmly established. In this sense, the few years after the war may be

keenly interested in the cause of UNESCO. Though Japan is not as yet a member state of UNESCO, she is actively developing UNESCO projects, and sincerely looks forward to the day when she may be admitted to UNESCO.

The first UNESCO Cooperating Association formed at Sendai City in July of 1947 was followed by an increasing number of similar associations throughout Japan. The present number of the associations is approximately one hundred. They are endeavoring to promote better understanding of UNESCO among the people at large by sponsoring lecture meetings, short courses, exhibitions, concerts, etc.

Reflecting the growing interest among the people in UNESCO, the Association of Diet Members for UNESCO was organized in September, 1949. In the course of the 6th session of the Diet held in November of the same year, both Houses adopted the resolution for the promotion of the UNESCO movements in Japan.

Meanwhile, in August, 1948, Dr. Kuo Yu-shu, Special Advisor to the Director General on Asia and the Far East, came to Japan to observe the conditions of education, science and culture in Japan. His visit proved to be a fresh impetus to the UNESCO movements in Japan, which had been already developing. The third session of the General Conference of UNESCO held at Beirut in the fall of the same year, in which Dr. Bunce, CIE, GHQ, participated for the first time as the observer from SCAP, passed a resolution on six programs of UNESCO activities to be extended to Japan. Since then, UNESCO programs for Japan have been expanded year after year.

In April of 1949, Professor Lee Shi-Mou came to Japan as the UNESCO Representative, and opened in Tokyo the UNESCO Office of Japan. Through his appropriate guidance and advice, Japan has come to enjoy remarkably closest contacts with the UNESCO Headquarters. This evidently gave further stimulation to the UNESCO movements in Japan.

When the Ministry of Education was reorganized in June, 1949, the Liaison and UNESCO Section was created in the Minister's Secretariat with a view to promoting UNESCO activities in Japan and coordinating the affairs concerning UNESCO within the country as well as within the Ministry. The Section keeps close contact with the UNESCO Office in Japan, the General Headquarters for SCAP, and governmental agencies and non-governmental organizations concerned, in furthering effect. It also endeavors to spread and promote the UNESCO cause by means of the preparation of UNESCO materials as well as lecture meetings, workshops, short courses, exhibitions, etc., laying particular emphasis upon such promotion, through educational institutions and educators. Besides, in order that the prefectural boards of education may have more thorough understanding and interest in UNESCO and may offer adequate cooperation and guidance for local UNESCO movements, Section sponsors meetings of Chiefs of Social or cultural Education Sections, boards of education throughout the country, to have active and informal discussion and consultations about Unesco.

In 1950 the Japanese were for the first time invited to attend some of the conferences and meetings sponsored by Unesco. This has deep significance for Japan, symbolizing as it does the fact that she is actually being allowed to enter the family of nations.

Among the conferences to which Japanese were invited are (1) the General Conference of Unesco at Florence, (2) International Seminar on Adult Education at Salzburg, Austria, (3) International Seminar on International Understanding through Teaching of Geography

to meet the local need where people are less favored with opportunity for appreciating excellent articles of art, and help promote local fine arts. Moreover, since 1907 we are purchasing excellent works of art each year, which are intended for public exhibition to say nothing of their preservation. To our regret, however, we have not yet got a national modern art gallery. Therefore, this year we expect to meet the need of the people by opening a small temporary exhibition hall.

(3) Drama.

We employ specialists as a committee, select excellent play-books, prepare guidebooks and collections of plays, and distributing these among the public, attempt a healthy fostering and dissemination of plays for youth. Also centering around the Culture Day of November 3rd which is a people's festival day, an art fête (festival) is held each year by the executive committee of art authorities to show and let the people appreciate, our highest artistic performances on stage, in film or radio. This is a sort of national affair for the promotion of art. This year again we want to have it in Tokyo and other large cities and are now making preparations for it.

(4) Encouragement of Art.

We select each year the best works of play, music, film, painting, literature, and award them the Ministry of Education's prize; also we examine and decide upon the best works of educational film, slide picture, paper picture play through the hands of the Educational Film and Others Examination Division Council and award them the Ministry of Education's Prize.

(5) Promotion of Flower Arrangement.

Flower arrangement is a unique art existing in Japan from former days with a fine tradition, and since this art is gradually spreading among the people, we intend to have an exhibition of flower arrangement and contribute to the promotion of the art of flower arrangement. Last of all in order to treat courteously some distinguished artists, the Japan Art Academy is established as an honorary organ, which annually chooses the best works of art for the year, decides the award of the Japan Art Academy Prize, thus to make an important contribution to art promotion.

Policies of encouragement of art are very unsatisfactory as stated below, due to lack of money and staff, and there are many tasks yet to be accomplished in future. In such a country as Japan where people are not rich as in U. S., without the government's positive aid, healthy development of art cannot be expected. On that account is there not more need to propel the protective policy of art? From such a standpoint, to say nothing of the need of exemption of goods-tax on educational musical instruments, of entrance fee to the art, festival and others, establishment of a modern art gallery and the national theatre ought to be realized.

F. Development of UNESCO Movement

The lofty aim of UNESCO to build the defenses of peace in the minds of men is just in the same line with the ideal of the Japanese people who are striving under the new Constitution to be reborn as a peaceful nation. It is little wonder that they have become

goods preservation regulations above mentioned and to establish new administrative structure concerning preservation of cultural goods. The objects to be protected are not limited to material cultural goods and historic sites, scenic beauties, and natural monuments, but also immaterial cultural products such as drama and music are included, among them which have to be preserved as they have high historical or artistic value. As an instance we may mention such immaterial cultural goods as gagaku (court music) and bugaku (dance music) which are preserved at the court or in the temple. On the other hand, we want not only to preserve and protect these cultural objects but also open ways positively for their utilization. Concerning material cultural articles, those which are important are designated as important cultural goods, among which especially valuable ones from the standpoint of world culture and are unique treasures of the people, are designated as national treasures.

Moreover, as an administrative organ for protection of cultural articles, the Cultural Properties Protection Committee was newly set up in the Ministry as a collateral executive organ of a representative system. This Committee consists of five members who are appointed by the Education Minister from among those who have a high opinion about culture through consent of both Houses of the Diet and whose tenure of office covers three years. Its duties are to protect and preserve cultural objects, and conduct survey and research concerning them and exercise various authorities accompanying such duties. Formerly such authorities were exercised by the Education Minister as a link (part) of social education.

Thus cultural objects protection administration has been given a new direction by establishment and enactment of the Cultural Properties Protection Law and now an administrative structure to go on along that direction is firmly established.

E. Encouragement of Art

It is since the rebirth of our nation as a cultural country that the true importance of encouragement of art has begun to be recognized by the general public, and the beginning of such recognition may be seen when promotion of art was taken up as a powerful and noble means of social education through establishment of an independent Art Section in the Social Education Bureau of the Ministry of Education.

Of course encouragement of art never means to put state control over art, but it aims chiefly to esteem its independence, and yet to help and encourage it.

It aims to promote various activities in different fields of art and to elevate the standard of art, facilitating opportunities to appreciate artistic culture by the general public and enrich people's emotion.

Under such principles the Ministry is now chiefly conducting the following activities:—

(1) Music.

We prepare and distribute guidebooks for appreciating musical records; we purchase and keep rare musical records; we mediate for organizing an All Japan Committee Meet; to participate in the musical olympic at Salzburg and handle matters concerning the affair as the office concerned.

(2) Fine Art.

We borrow works of first class living painters, sculptors, craftspeople, and under a four year plan go around the country to hold the Contemporary Japanese Art Travel Exhibition

by universities and special private libraries, and preparing the indices of the literature.

Secondly, to introduce scientific literature, it is looking to the interchange of foreign and home science through the summarization of scientific books of both origins, in which 65 items on natural science of foreign, and 100 of domestic, cultural origin, are expected to be included. Moreover, we are editing a Japan Science Review in order that we may translate and promptly report our excellent scientific treatises abroad. Thirdly, making good offices for the importation of foreign books and the exchange of our publications with foreign ones, it is serving researchers through the investigation, arrangement, introduction and acquisition of the said literature. Also, it is extremely necessary to collect, arrange, preserve and make the best use of scientific materials in the light of the existing state of things. We have it in mind, therefore, to formulate a policy of preserving important materials through the investigation of their whereabouts and to take steps to prevent their dispersion and damage, while we are now purchasing historical materials concerning the common people of the modern and Meiji eras, which are greatly in danger of dispersion.

D. Establishment of Cultural Goods Protection Administration

In our country we have still not a few buildings, paintings, works of sculpture and handicrafts of great artistic value which are hundreds and thousands of years old. To protect such cultural heritage well and utilize it for the benefit of the people is an important task assigned to this country which is on the way of rehabilitation as a new cultural state. Up to the present these cultural articles have been protected by such laws as the National Treasure Preservation Law (1929), Law pertaining to Preservation of important Articles of Fine Arts (1933), Historic Site, Scenic Beauty, Natural Monument Preservation Law (1928) etc. By the national treasure we mean those objects which verify historic facts or become models of fine art and which are designated by the Education Minister, and there are 6,937 of the objects including buildings and other treasures such as painting, sculpture, documents, books, works of calligraphy, swords, objects of craft work and archeological materials.

By important objects of art we mean those which are valuable both in history and art and recognized by the Education Minister and at present there are as many as 8,399 of such objects. The national treasury grants aid to the owners of those objects for repairs and maintenance. Lastly there are 1,578 historic sites, sceneries and natural monuments which are designated by the Minister. And for preservation and repair of all these national treasures, important objects of art, historic sites, scenic spots, and natural monuments, the Ministry estimates a budget of some two hundred million yen.

Despite such efforts of ours to protect our nation's cultural goods, destruction and dispersion of many of them by the war disaster, delay of restoration on account of stringent financial and conomic conditions after the war, have really been deplorable. In January, 1949 the partial destruction the Horyuji Golden Temple, the world famous cultural goods, by accident, made a touching appeal to the heart of the people, and as a result there rose a loud cry for fundamental renovation of the cultural goods administration. Backed up by such public opinion, the Cultural Properties Protection Law passed the 7th session of the Diet in 1950 and went into force on 29th of August of the same year.

This new Cultural Properties Protection Law intends both to re-adjust former cultural

schools and below, for the encouragement of their studies in cultural and natural science. Considering the transference of administrative authority to the local governments, it is deemed proper that such matters should be dealt with by the latter, and so we expect to abolish such sort of grants in and after 1951. In consequence we request that some measures to replace the above be promptly taken by the prefectural governments.

(6) Grants for private research institutes :

After the termination of hostilities, private research institutes have found it so difficult to make both ends meet that their research functions are now almost at a standstill. Therefore, these grants are to be awarded to maintain their functions by trusting them to carry on researches essential either to science or to the public interest.

The following are grants given to various kinds of studies
from 1945 to 1950 : (000 omitted)

Year	Expenses for scientific research		Expenses for scientific examination and research		Expenses for re- search of cultural science	Bounties for scientific research		Subsidies for publication of results of study	Private research organs	Total
	Cult.	Nat.	Cult.	Nat.		Cult.	Nat.			
1945	700	13,000	—	2,700	—	50	150	—	—	16,600
1946	1,700	17,000	—	5,000	270	50	250	—	—	24,270
1947	8,000	32,000	—	15,000	350	150	250	2,500	7,500	65,750
1948	26,000	144,000	—	62,000	3,500	700	1,100	3,000	21,500	261,800
1949	42,500	212,500	10,000	122,000	4,500	1,485	2,015	20,000	35,000	450,000
1950	46,000	230,000	15,000	135,000	5,500	3,500		25,000	40,000	500,000

(Cult. = Cultural Nat. = Natural)

The foregoing grants need to be spent most effectively and reasonably in accordance with the actual state of learned circles. The Ministry of Education makes it a rule to consult the Japanese Science Council about the decision concerning not only the policy of making a budget for grants but also concerning the fundamental policy of their distribution, and to submit the planning details for discussion to the Scientific Research Expense Subcommittee of the Scientific Encouragement Council formed of members selected from among those recommended by academic circles.

It is needless to say that any research institute should carry on its research activity with its own working expenses, but the estimates for these or lectureship research expenses are so small at present that they fall short of maintaining even its requisite study at the lowest level. This is the reason why the Ministry of Education is bending its energies towards the increase of these lectureship research expenses of universities and colleges, and concurrently towards that of the above-mentioned scientific research expenses.

C. Presentation of Scientific Information

The promotion and spread of science call for an accurate and prompt conveyance of information concerning science. To this end, first, the Ministry of Education, since 1947, has been arranging composite catalogues of the scientific books and journals which are possessed

Such is our present organization for the science administration of the nation.

B. Promotion and Encouragement of Scientific Researches

The research facilities in Japan consist of universities and colleges, national (71) and public and private (154), and 59 national research institutes including 5 Education-Ministry-controlled ones (2 for cultural science and 3 for natural one), 54 attached to universities (8 for cultural and 46 for natural science) as well as 199 private research organs (33 for cultural and 166 for natural), for whose arrangement the best effort and collaboration are under way through the close liaison of the Ministry of Education and the Japanese Science Council. That is to say, apart from the so-called lectureship research expenses or the current research expenses of the universities, appropriation of some money for scientific research expenses in the budgets has been made since 1939, and we have chiefly helped researchers, whether they belong to state research agencies or to public or private ones, in their principal basic and applied studies, extending over the entire field of science, cultural and natural. As to the grant of research expenses, it varies in kinds as follows:

(1) Grants for fundamental scientific research:

These are research expenses to be granted for the important basic studies carried on by researchers belonging to universities and research institutes. There are two types of the grant, one for the personal study of an individual researcher and the other for the joint one of those in their special fields.

(2) Grants for scientific research:

These are to be given to aid "basic applied researches" conducive to the solution of such current problems of urgency and importance as economic reconstruction, the stabilization of the nation's life and the like, being chiefly granted for the organized studies jointly conducted by researchers in each of the special areas of study.

(3) Grants for special researchers in cultural science:

These were originally intended to aid the studies made by researchers who did not belong to any particular research agency. These people have been found, however, in the field not only of cultural but also of natural science and the results of their researches could not always be ignored. Accordingly, it is intended to make the natural science researchers the objects of grants in and after 1951 also, and further to rename them Aid Subsidies for Scientific Research

(4) Grants for publishing research results:

After the war, almost all scientific societies have found it very difficult to issue their journals, and conditions have become so bad that important achievements of study are piled up untouched. It is needed to help them to be issued in book or other form, and we are to select particularly important ones out of the achievements by scientific researchers, granting subsidies to them.

(5) Grants for scientific research:

These are the grants which are given to teachers of the new-system upper secondary

2. The Japan Science Council will deliberate upon important matters concerning science and make efforts to realize them. Its duties will be to make coordination of researches, promotion, elevation and development of efficiency of those researches.

3. The government will surely form a habit of making inquiry into the Japan Science Council on important policies with regard to science, and the latter body will be empowered to make recommendations concerning those policies to the government.

4. There will be 210 members of the Japan Science Council who will be elected by a certain number of qualified scientists all over the country.

5. The Science and Research Council will be abolished. The Imperial Academy will be absorbed in the Japan Science Council as an honorary organ for the courteous treatment of leading scholars.

Again, the Science System Renewal Committee made recommendation to the government on the following two points in order to rectify the defects of our system of science administration:

a. In the Cabinet will newly be established the Scientific and Technical Administration Committee which consists of representatives of the Japan Science Council, intelligent people from the public, officials of ministries concerned, and will become the organ to make coordination with the government and reflect the will of the Japan Scientific Research Council upon it, at the same time planning coordination and adjustment of scientific and technical administration among different ministries.

b. To adjust and strengthen the administrative structure which will be responsible for promotion of basic sciences.

This report prepared by the Science System Renewal Committee was codified and enacted and promulgated as the "Japan Science Council Law" in June of the same year and the "Scientific and Technical Administration Law" in December respectively.

However, for formation of the science council it was necessary that its members should be elected by vote of the scientists of the entire nation. This business was taken care of by the election management committee set up within the Renewal Committee, which registered scientists with certain specific qualifications and by them election was conducted in December, 1948. Total number of voters was 43,399, number of votes 36,331, and the successful 210 candidates were confirmed, and thus Science Council made a start in January 1949 and the foundation of the science organization which had been the pending question since the conclusion of war, was firmly established.

On the other hand, viewing the structure of the Education Ministry concerning science administration, it is something as follows:

After the war, together with dissolution of the Technician's Board, part of the business under its charge was taken over by the Ministry and in September, 1945 its Science Bureau was reorganized and joined to the Science Education Bureau, with two divisions and five sections, and in January, 1946 it was again changed to three sections of Science Education, Cultural Science Research, and General Research, and again in June, 1949 along with the establishment of the Education Ministry Reorganization Bill, the Higher Education & Science Bureau was established to unify the university administration and the science administration. Science administration is chiefly under the charge of the Research Promotion Section and the Science Section. Besides there is the General Affairs Section specially set up for coordination with the Japan Science Council and the Scientific & Technical Administration Council.

social physical education are widely spread over prefectures, local communities, plants and factories, we are now preparing a COS to be a guidebook for those people.

As future propositions, we should like to see the establishment of the National Physical Education Research Institute for study of physical education as well as the permanent training institute for physical education consultants.

Supplement to Chap. V.

Judo and Japanese Archery.....Judo and archery of which the militaristic color had been eliminated by the post-war efforts made by the people who loved them, reappeared about 1947 as general sports. The organizations of their lovers which were operated on the democratic basis, have been admitted to the membership of the Japan Physical Education Association, an amateurs' sports organization. They are now loved by many people just as other sports are.

Chapter VI. Promotion of Science and Culture

Since the Education Ministry not merely exercises administration relative to education but also as it is largely responsible for the encouragement and promotion of science and culture, here we want to state the outline of our policy concerning promotion of science and culture.

A. Renewal of Scientific Research System

In order to use the power of science for peaceful, cultural restoration of our country, it is necessary to elevate the standard of research through close coordination and cooperation of scientists all over Japan and establish a system which throws the light of science on administration, industry and people's life in general. Consequently, the renewal of the system of scientific research has been a most important problem for our administration of science since the end of the war.

At first this problem appeared in the form of reorganization plan of the Imperial Academy, the Science Research Council and the Japan Science Promotion Society which were under the control of the Ministry in 1946. However, as it was recognized that this problem is too grave and comprehensive to be solved by mere reorganization of those three bodies, in August, 1947 the Science System Renewal Committee was organized by 108 members who were democratically elected from among scientists all over the nation, and as the result of their sincere deliberation extending over six months, the plan of the Japan Science Council was drawn up as follows: (Meanwhile the American Science Councilor' Group consisting of six scientists headed by Dr. Adams of Illinois University visited our country and left us a very helpful report under the title of "Reorganization of Science and Technique in Japan")

1. As the representative organ of our scientists both at home and abroad, the Japan Science Council will be newly established by law. It will be under jurisdiction of the Prime Minister and its expenses will be met by the national treasury.

	Prefecture, city	Town, village, plant
1948	15	150
1949	64	760
1950	105	900

Works done by the Ministry itself for promotion of sports and recreation or help rendered by it to other bodies are as follows:—

(1) Establishment of spring & fall recreation week.

On account of strong desire of those concerned with sports and recreation, the recreation week has been set up in spring and fall since 1949 to stress recreation for a week, and various kinds of recreational activities are gathered and performed to disseminate the idea of recreation.

(2) People's Athletic Meet.

Each year the Japan Physical Education Association holds an athletic meet under sponsorship of the Ministry to promote people's health. This year we hold the fifth mass meet, whose participants are the general public inclusive of young men and women and students. Regular participants are 20,000, but people who attend local meets will amount to some five millions.

(3) Mass Meet of Recreation.

The Japan Recreation Association each year holds the all Japan mass meet of recreation under sponsorship of the Ministry to help develop healthy recreation movement. The fourth mass meet was held at Obihiro, Hokkaido for four days from July 24. More than one thousand leaders gathered from all parts of Japan and discussed and studied various important problems concerning recreation, and then performed local square dances, folk dances, etc.

(4) International Match.

In '49 our swimming team participated in the American Swimming Contest at Los Angeles and this year four champion swimmers were sent to S. America. Then we welcomed a team from America to have the Japan-American Swimming Contest. For wrestling we welcomed the American representatives in July; for basket ball we had a Hawaiian team with us in April and for gymnastics we had the American representatives with us in June and had several good will contests.

(5) Other Meets.

Organizations for other games each hold a championship meet once a year.

(6) Fostering Leaders.

As there is no organ for fostering leaders of social physical education, the Ministry twice a year has regular short training courses.

(7) Preparation of Course of Study for Local Physical Education.

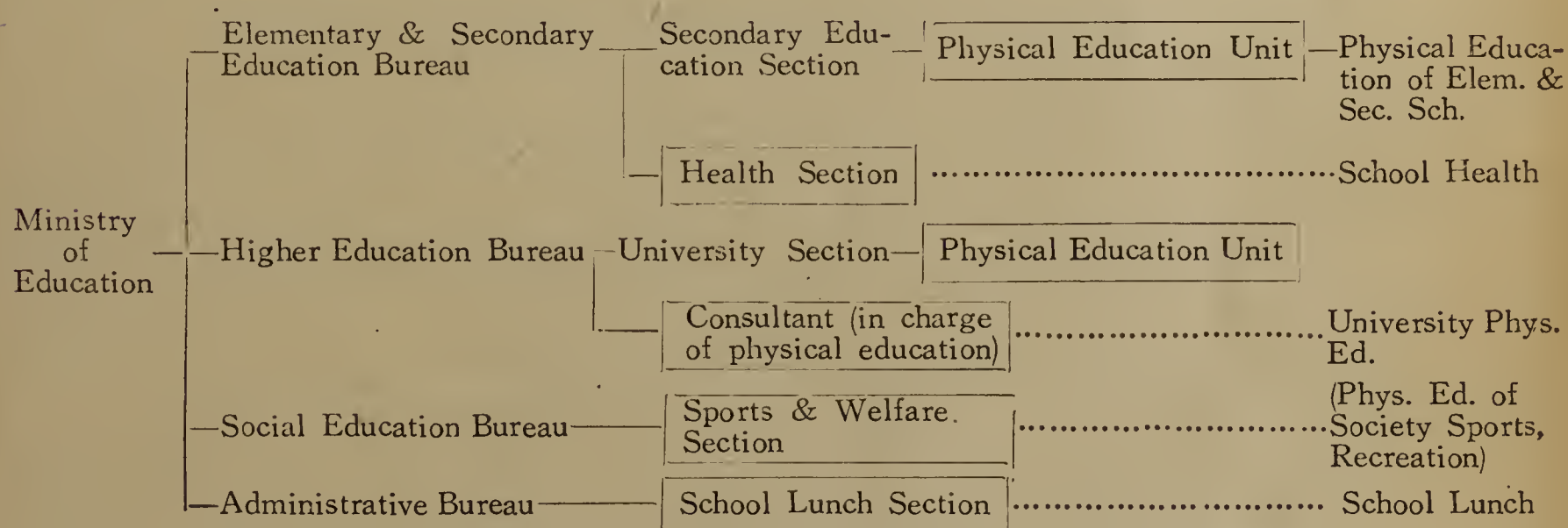
The school physical education has not got so far. Now that consultants in charge of

received in places of their detention, they had become so radical that the Mombusho lecturers were often subjected to "tsurushiage" (kangaroo court) ordeal, driving home to us the difficulty of this kind of education.

L. Sports and Recreation

By the strong desire of the people, clubs and associations for sports & recreation are organized at different places and run democratically. Though their spread is remarkable they are short of leaders and poor in equipment. Moreover, due to social conventions and monetary stringency it is regrettable that sports & recreation are not yet diffused to the life of home and neighboring communities.

Business concerning sports and recreation was under the charge of the Physical Education Bureau of the Ministry together with business concerning school physical education, but at the time of the Ministry's reorganization in '49 it was divided among the following bureaus. Then the Health Physical Education Council was set up to reflect the views of intelligent citizens upon the physical education administration, and we are now getting its help for coordination of health and physical education administration.



Since the Ministry has made great efforts to establish equipment for physical education, now there is at least one all-round playground set up in each prefecture. The following table indicates the number of physical education installations set up through good offices of the Ministry to procure materials for prefectures and large cities.

	Baseball	Field game	Pool	Gym
1948	24	—	—	—
1949	26	30	23	15
1950	43	43	41	26

Among principal private organizations for sports and recreation we have the Japan Physical Education Association, the Japan Recreation Association, the Sports Promotion Council, and other organizations for professional games or matches of baseball (two major leagues), boxing, wrestling, jūdo, and bodies in cities, towns, villages and plants are increasing annually as is shown by the following table (clubs for sports are not included)

The aims of the education of the laborers are to promote the understanding of labor problems and laws pertaining to labor, to acquire vocational knowledge and skill, to give more social and cultural training, and to operate character training and civic education organically combined. The Labor Ministry puts its priority on the problem of, and laws pertaining to, the labor, while the Ministry of Education takes charge of the education of vocational skill and civic training, from the point of specific social and civic education, as a chain of broader social education.

The Ministry of Education has established the Laborers Education Committee (later renamed Competent Discussion Conference for Education of Laborers) composed of the representatives of labor unions, the learned and the experienced, and staffs of Government offices concerned, by whose proposals and answers the Ministry of Education carries its policies for this field of education.

The Ministry of Education opens once a year in summer, a Summer Labor University with a period of a week, for the education of the labor unions representing all of the prefectures, of the representative leaders of various cultural fields, and of prefectural teachers of laborers. At the same time the Ministry operates Labor Culture Training Courses in each of the prefectures, for the purpose of promoting the cultural levels of the laborers. It has also prepared specific curricula for the education of the laborers, so that they may be able to appreciate and enjoy music and fine arts, and on the basis of those curricula a plan is being made for the preparation of films and slides. The Ministry is now very busy in collecting and adjusting various other materials pertaining to recreation, vocational education, economics, literature, and so on.

The labor movements of our country were too impatient in the solution of economic difficulties immediately after the termination of the war, lost in political and economic strife, and making very light of labor education and culture. With the stabilization of the community, however, each of the laborers has awakened to the need of higher culture, lending itself to the gradual positiveness of their educational activities. Still very few examples show that the educational projects have been operated organically and systematically, which means that efforts should be made for the improvement of such a state of things.

K. Education of the Repatriated

Needless to say, it is an urgent business of the day to give ex-soldiers and ordinary people coming back full of anxiety and fret from strange lands, a speedy and correct recognition of internal affairs, set their minds at rest, and guide them in getting a livelihood, and thus to prepare them heartily to cooperate in the restoration of their mother country.

Creating its business offices in the four ports of landing, Maizuru, Hakodate, Saseho and Ujina (closed down since 1947) in 1947, the Ministry of Education has, through lectures, informal talks, pamphlets, hanging-up-pictures, wall news, films, theatrical entertainments, paper-slides, dramatic and musical performances for school children, and native-place rooms, been furnishing the new Constitution, land reform, livelihood protection and other current topics with the view of giving them mental stability.

Those repatriated soldiers and people who have received this education amount to 400,000.

It may be added that by ships which sailed back (the first entered Maizuru June 1949) returned about 58,000 "confirmed" repatriated people. Due to the special education

This has been stressed in Yamagata, Fukushima and all other prefectures of the nation and a large budget required for this work is set aside in addition to zeal and exertions of public bodies and school teachers.

For the establishment of the public citizen's hall which is one of the important installations of the social education, young people contributed much. They take part in its operation and through its operation a great contribution was made to youth education as being of the nature of youth centre. What should not be forgotten when we talk of youth education is the problem of child culture. Though it is very important to take away from children and young people, vulgar readings, harmful paper picture plays, etc. and instead to give them good readings which enrich their emotions and help elevate their personality, yet at present this work still lies in a very unsatisfactory condition. In our Ministry too we have set up a divisional council concerning juvenile culture and are now studying concrete counter-measures.

I. Purity Education

Along with the deterioration of the community after the termination of the war, confusion arose of people's morals, accompanied by the prevalence of social diseases, the increase of concubines, and the sexual crimes and immoralities of juvenile people, which drove the Japanese community into a state of dreadful unrest and spiritual agony. The causes for all these should mainly be reduced to the disorder and the confusion of society immediately after the war, but partly to the traditional lack of sex education in the long pre-war years. Suddenly plunging into a free community, most young people misunderstood the freedom of thought and rushed into recklessness, chiefly because of their ignorance about sex. As a counter-measure for this, the Ministry of Education sent to each of the Prefectural Governors a notification on "the Operation of Purity Education," with the explanation of its principles and methods, for the dissemination of such knowledge. The Ministry of Education had at the same time organized the Purity Education Committee, consisting of 35 members. The Committee has decided its basic points for purity education to be recommended to the authorities concerned, accompanied by its efforts in showing films and slides on sex, in giving help and advice for the publication of books or for the exhibition of referential materials in this line. This is entirely a cultivation of virgin soil in the education of Japan.

On the occasion when the Ministry of Education was re-organized in 1949, the Committee was dissolved after fulfilling its mission, to be replaced by the Division Conference for Purity Education of the Social Education Conference. This new-born Conference has been engaged in the study and researches of "Co-education and Home Education," "Intercourse between Men and Women and their Etiquette," and "How to give Sex Education", giving help and advices to the purity education activities by the prefectural purity education committees, the schools and social education bodies, and providing materials for these objectives.

J. Education of the Laborer

It goes without saying that it is one of the most urgent businesses to enhance the quality of the laborers who shoulder the great responsibility of reconstructing Japanese industry. Immediately after the termination of the war, the importance has been recognized of the education of laborers by people working in various fields, with the result that there has been made a steady progress in the educational activities in this field. But generally speaking, the progress thus far achieved may be said to have been far below the mark.

instead all sorts of young peoples' organizations were reorganized, restored or newly established. Most of these organizations were locally formed young peoples' unions or their federation, but apart from those, vocational youth unions appeared at their own initiative, and various youth unions with some special purpose have come into existence.

What is common to all these bodies is, different from those which were controlled and forced by outside power and guidance as was seen during the war, they are all democratic bodies to some extent. However, by mistaken democracy or remaining feudalistic ideas all youth unions showed the following defects:—

- 1. Lack of leadership
- 2. Lack of independent and aggressive spirit of members
- 3. Defect of organization
- 4. Problem of expenses
- 5. Relation to political activity.

At this juncture in October, 1948 when the youth leaders' training course was held, a few leaders from America, gave proper guidance on the principle and method of group work which forms the basis of operation of true democratic bodies. With this even reorganization, reexamination of those bodies was seriously discussed and a chance was given for conversion of our youth movement.

In '49 and '50 we had several training courses of youth leaders, and instruction was given concerning actual guidance of group work, concerning guidance & supervision of young peoples' undertakings and operation of bodies, all of which aroused a warm response on the part of the youth leaders. The number of leaders brought up at those three training courses was more than 1,400 and by them immediately an autonomous youth movement was started.

Present condition of young people's organizations as of March, 1950 is as follows:—

Classification	Number of Bodies		Members	
Young people's unions of local units	16,912		under survey	
County-city federations	—			
Prefectural federations	—			
YMCA	city YM	31	22,676	As of Mar. 1950
	student YM	285		
YWCA	city YW	13	4,500	
	student YW	51	7,400	
4 H club	12,361		436,286	
Boy scout	773		25,000	
Girl scout	386		10,174	
Young people's red cross	—		364,954	

By enforcement of the 6-3 system of compulsory education, the structure of school education toward youth has been adjusted, yet only a few get the part-time upper secondary education and the role played by the social education is very important. In recent years school extension is mostly developed having young people in view. Cultural lectures for young working people are popular all over the country, and the summer university and other lectures for the benefit of working people have also become very brisk. What is specially worthy of note as the social education directed toward the young people, is the young people's class.

to add the following two: One is the movement that tries to establish legal measures regarding the security of standard expenses for compulsory education, to look to the entire abolition of aids to school expenses which the PTA is now obliged to take care of, and thereby to spend PTA funds only for proper PTA activities. The other is that they are trying to form the PTA-s on a national level. This year, the foregoing "PTA" Division Council set up by the Ministry of Education, with itself in the center, has held three meetings of the National PTA Research Conference whereby they deliberated on the matter. As a result, it is now decided to select one committee member from each of the entire prefectures and five major cities to prepare to organize the National PTA, and to urge concrete plans so that they may open a committee meeting in the coming September.

G. Promotion of Home Education

In five years after the war, youth delinquency of those below 14 years of age, increased three times, compared with prewar time and the rate of delinquency of those below 18 also reached 279 putting 1949 at 100, and crimes are getting worse in their nature. Also it is a remarkable phenomenon that some young people have participated in ideological social campaign. Various measures were taken to prevent crimes and protect young people from them by setting up such laws as the Child Welfare Law, Children's Law, Reformatory Law, Labor Standard Law, etc. As both the government and people are making joint efforts to prevent degradation of young people by spreading a net-work all over the country, the condition is getting better. However, in order to eradicate crime it is necessary not only to prevent it, but to take drastic measures against it, i. e. we have to promote home education. Its importance is already stressed in Art. 7 of the Fundamental Law of Education, but in correspondence with people's awakening its encouragement and propagation has been aggressively done since 1948.

Promotion measures of home education annually taken by the Ministry recently are as follows: —

1. Availing of social class chair (lecture) or regular lectures given at citizens' halls which form a part of school extension, we are trying to promote home education for adults.
2. We give guidance and advice to lecture meetings, discussion assemblies conducted by women's bodies, PTA and other bodies concerned with social education for promotion of home education.

With such purport the number of lecture meetings of social education opened by prefectures, in which among others addresses, debates, counter-measures, research-announcements, etc. relative to home education were included, counted as many as 179 during the year, and it proved to be very effective in raising prefectural leaders.

In future we intend to encourage establishment of home education consultation center in all citizens' halls of the country as an organized composite measure concerning promotion of home education. On the other hand, seeking cooperation of the national and private educational research institutes and aiming to give guidance based on their achievements, we are now planning to have a "short course and conference for study of home education".

H. Youth Education

The Greater Japan Young People's Union which had brought up our young people, and controlled the youth movement of the entire nation during the war was dissolved in 1946, and

schools throughout the country since the spring of 1947, or thereabouts, have now already reached 98% of the nation's elementary, lower and upper secondary schools and become so prosperouss as to number some thirty seven thousand with a membership of about fifteen million in all. In the meantime, the Ministry of Education, under the guidance of Professor Rose Carone at Pennsylvania University who visited Japan in 1948, made tentative advisory regulations, held research meetings and workshops under its auspices, or cooperated with them. At present, creating a "PTA" Division Council, the Ministry is helping in the proper operation of the PTA. The substance of the PTA activities greatly varies with real local conditions and the leading features are as follows:

- (1) Research activities for new education by parent and teacher.
- (2) Cooperation towards school-lunch activity.
- (3) Cooperation towards the health and sanitation activities by the school.
- (4) Activity for the guidance and protection of handicapped children.
- (5) Positive participation in and collaboration with school events.
- (6) Completion of school facilities and equipment.
- (7) Activities of a study-group by parent and teacher.
- (8) Study and practice of new discipline.
- (9) Activity for scientific and democratic way of home life.
- (10) Parent education.
- (11) Home project.
- (12) Enforcement of home consultation.
- (13) Activities for the guidancc of extra-mural life and the prevention of delinquency.
- (14) Vocational education.
- (15) Cooperation towards the activity for social welfare work.
- (16) Study of the right conduct of the PTA.
- (17) Drill in the democratic way of proceedings. etc.

Thus, though the original PTA activities are gradually becoming more complete, yet there are various questions still left for settlement. Some of them are as follows:

(1) In the way of determining officers, 40% of the whole PTA-s take such a step as to have them elected or recommended from among other particular persons than those directly elected by members.

(2) Only about 50% of all hold a general meeting once a month others mostly once every two months or half a year, and as many as 70% less than three times a year.

(3) There are 30% of PTA-s that do not provide for a quorum in the general meeting.

(4) There are 40% of PTA-s where teacher members do not pay their dues.

(5) The conditions of expenditure are given below, from which we see that there is still a great deal that strongly smacks of the former school supporters' society.

	Original PTA Activity	Aid To School	Subsidy To Teacher
Elementary School	45.3%	38.4%	16.3%
Lower Secondary School	47.7%	38.7%	13.6%
Upper Secondary School	38.8%	41.1%	30.1%

Under these circumstances, enlightening activities for a still better way of existence of PTA must be carried on hereafter.

Lastly, as the important problems that Japan's PTA activities face at present, we wish

Table of
Number of Social Education Courses, Attendants and Expenses

		Special Course	Summer School	Culture Course	Community Class Course	People's Science Course
1946	No. of Courses	—	—	29	(4,031) 1,060	—
	No. of Attendants	—	—	—	(900,777) 233,968	—
	Expenses	—	—	46,000	200,000	—
1947	No. of Courses	17	29	28	(6,955) 1,000	—
	No. of Attendants	7,595	30,184	5,855	(684,530) 88,420	—
	Expenses	193,000	65,000	10,000	600,000	415,000
1948	No. of Courses	17	20	19	(6,193) 910	68
	No. of Attendants	9,319	2,434	6,416	(892,872) 131,071	9,924
	Expenses	420,000	444,000	192,000	920,000	814,000
1949	No. of Courses	4	15	39	(7,325) 910	112
	No. of Attendants	700	1,453	2,679	(777,114) 301,671	7,392
	Expenses	1,180,000	420,000	288,000	1,472,000	1,166,000
1950	No. of Courses	5	16	31	910	—
	No. of Attendants	—	—	—	—	—
	Expenses	1,384,000	320,000	372,000	1,656,000	1,380,000

Remarks: Figures in brackets in the column of "Community Class" indicate number of courses & attendants of those provided under auspices of local self-governing bodies.

E. Correspondence Education

The part played by the correspondence education in order to realize equal opportunity for education is very great. Particularly, in the existing difficult social circumstances of school attendance, the correspondence education was greatly esteemed and welcomed by the people as an educational measure newly adopted after the war. But it is not yet long since the system started, and the correspondence education relative to social education is at so very low an ebb that even those who have received the authorization of the Minister of Education are confronted with various difficult problems. So, further efforts must be made for its promotion hereafter. At present there are seven courses of correspondence education of vocational technique and general culture that have received the authorization of the Minister of Education according to Article 57 of the Social Education Law. Their conditions are as shown in the statistics of Appendix 1.

F. Activities of PTA

The PTA-s which have grown out of the former supporters' or protectors' societies in the

D. School Extension Program

Despite insufficiency and shortage of equipment on all sides, School Extension Program was immediately taken up by the Ministry of Education at the recommendation of the American Education Mission. It is an integral portion of the broad and vital program of adult education which is made available through facilities of schools together with their well-experienced teaching staff. Sincere effort has been and is being made by the Ministry toward its perfection.

A brief explanation will be given on the school extension courses whose expenses are borne by the Ministry, describing their general conditions according to their types. A table of the number of these courses as provided each year, indicating also the size of attendance and cost, will be mentioned at the end of this section.

(1) "Culture Course"

This course is designed for the general public with emphasis on popularization and diffusion of democratic spirit among the people. Each school's characteristics are featured, and current topics, problems of both cultural and natural sciences are explained in an easy and simple manner. This program was started in 1946 and is being continued successfully.

(2) "Community Class Course"

In 1946 this was called "Mothers' Class," in 1947 "Parents' Class," aiming at the promotion of family education. In 1948 the name was changed to "Community Class", and since 1949 it has been practiced by many elementary and secondary schools in the communities. The course is given at least once a month all the year round, amounting to 30 hours in all. Subjects discussed include: family life, social life, politics, economy, education, agriculture, industry, cultural and natural sciences. Besides, full consideration is given to local people's desire and community's actual state, so that the practice of course is claimed to be both systematic and helpful to their need. We are planning to establish a model curriculum for the "Community Class Course" by the end of this fiscal year.

(3) "Special Course"

This is provided, in the universities (including colleges under the former system) particularly for those people who wish to acquire specialized knowledge or technique in subjects covering cultural, social and natural sciences. Successful practices have been achieved since 1947.

(4) "Summer School Course"

Taking advantage of summer vacation, we offer this program for the working masses. It is actually a series of systematic study class given during the summer when most people have leisure hours. It has been continued since 1947.

All the courses stated above are genuine School Extension Courses offered in accordance with Article 48 of the Social Education Law. Besides these, the Ministry of Education provides still another extension course through facilities such as laboratory, museum, botanical garden, citizens' public hall, library, etc. The purpose is to help develop scientific advancement of the people and society. "People's Science Course" has been offered since 1947 especially for adults in rural area who do not usually enjoy scientific privileges. Demonstration, experiment, lecture and discussion are given in parallel.

C. Extension of Audio-visual Education

It is a well-known fact that as a measure of promotion of social education, use of movie, slide, Kamishibai (paper picture play) and other means of audio-visual education has a great and value effect.

The Ministry of Education held in April through June 1948, the short training course of all Japan audio-visual education leaders in order to drive home the way of use of the projector and films lent by GHQ to promote international understanding and democratization of our people.

Seven hundred people concerned with social education all over the country who attended this short course are now acting as leaders of each prefecture's visual education. In October of the same year about the use of those leased visual teaching implements a vice-minister's notice was sent to each prefecture, and each prefecture in its Administrative Section of Social Education set up a unit of audio-visual education and an audio-visual library in the central library to be ready for the use of the general public. In this way audio-visual educational activities in this country, which is something epoch-making in social education, started.

As a business of the Art Section in the Ministry of Education Organization Regulations based on the Ministry of Education Establishment Law of May, 1949, as well as a business of local board of education in the Social Education Law of June of the same year, the matter of audio-visual education is taken up. Also among the provisions of public citizens' hall in the Social Education Law, use of audio-visual instruments is recommended for achievement of the purpose of the public citizen's hall. Also in the Library Law of 1950 it is mentioned that a collection of audio-visual materials, and offering them for a public use, is one of the services to be rendered by the library. That the audio-visual education is taken up by various laws is a proof that its importance is realized by the general public.

For promotion of this education since January, 1947 there has been set up in the Ministry of Education the Educational Movie and Others Examination Division Council consisting of specialists of the movie circle, whereby they have examination meetings twice a week and are conducting classification and evaluation of films, slides, paper picture-shows. The result is speedily reported to the prefectural boards of education and at the same time is broadcast by NHK making use of the period of school broadcast. Since its establishment the council examined 617 films, 166 slide-sets, 160 paper picture plays and have awarded Education Minister's prize to excellent ones. Moreover, to extend the prefectural library of audio-visual education and to urge the social educational activities, under the auspices of the Ministry, the traveling preview of pictures conducted in eight districts of the entire nation. This is done four times a year to introduce and help the use of new films for social education which contribute to democratization of our country, and it is also aimed to promote manufacture of educational films. Besides, for national and local meetings concerned with audio-visual education, the Ministry not only gives guidance concerning technical matters and management, but also makes introduction and mediation for necessary materials.

However, the audio-visual educational activities performed in prefectures are still in their initiatory stage, and concerning its right use and operation as a means of education, there still remain many problems.

this Law, the concrete ways of service by library have been clarified, at the same time, the principles of throwing them open to the public free of charge have been firmly established in accordance with the advice of the American Educational Mission. Hereby have been made clear the original functions of the library and the nation's libraries are being arranged on the basis of this spirit. Moreover, the Law has presented desirable standards in regard to the library and opened the way for Government aid. Also it is expected that the training and re-education of librarians will be effected on the basis of the regulations of this Law hereafter.

(2) Citizens' Halls:

The establishment of the above was proposed for the first time by the Ministry of Education in July, 1946. The object was to make them the center of social education in the local fishing and agricultural villages which are not favored with any cultural facilities, so to say. But the citizens' hall has today achieved steady progress even in the city and town, so that in about 51% of the nation's cities, towns and villages as of May, 1950, numbering 5275 in all were set up. The Social Education Law, establishing a chapter for it in particular, has prescribed the ways and means of creation, organization and national aid in regard to the citizens' hall, and reinforced its public character. Namely, the founder of a citizens' hall is a city, town or village, or a juridical person who sets it up according to the regulation of Article 34 of the Civil Code with a view to its establishment. And, it is provided for its undertakings to range very extensively over what are conducive to the education of the inhabitants, promotion of their health, and purification of their sentiment, but it should neither hanker for lucrative and partisan political acts, nor should one established by a city, town or village do any sectarian religious acts.

The citizens' hall is run by a director and other necessary personnel and as its director's advisory organ, is set up in it a Citizens' Hall Operation Council formed of members appointed by the city, town or village board of education cut of school principals and directors, representatives of entities, men of knowledge and experience. At present the citizens' hall exercises various sorts of work as the center of cultural education, information and recreation for the inhabitants' benefit and concurrently looks to the establishment of a effective system of culture as a center of cultural functions in the community. Particularly, the planned adult education lectureship in the citizens' hall, now constitutes the center of its enterprises. Even a factfinding survey for a short time, shows that the citizens' hall, where it is actively operated, is the motive power of Japan's democratization, achieving epochal results in taxation, rice-delivery and election without exception.

(3) Museums:

There are only 235 museums and allied facilities all over the country. The Ministry of Education is giving short courses to the personnel who are engaged in these facilities, but their substance is not always adequate. For one of the causes for this dulness may be mentioned the lack of firm legal foundation relative to the museum. Consequently, intending to institute a Museum Law which involves its standard and promotion, the Ministry of Education is now in the course of collecting its related materials.

in scope than adult education.

By the way, it was the enactment of the Social Education Law of June, 1949 that laid the foundation for and gave spur to the promotion of social education. This Law is what, conforming to the spirit of Article 7 of the Fundamental Law of Education of 1947, makes clear the role of national and local public entities on social education, by the law which is the direct expression of the nation's public opinion, and further to look to the legal arrangement of social education that has been liable to be made light of so far. The basic objective is, that the part of national and local public entities lies in producing such environment as enhances the cultural education to agree with actual life by all the people availing themselves of all opportunities and places of their own accord, in other words, in being interpreted as activities of service towards the nation. Based on such an objective, it prescribes by chapters and sections regarding bodies related to social education, the social education committee, the citizens' hall, the utilization of school facilities and the correspondence education. Of those, what are important, except those described in Section 2 of this chapter and following, run as follows: (1) It has been clarified that the relationship between the bodies related to social education and the administrative offices is based on the principles of "no-control" and "no-support" and (2) To reflect the inhabitants' popular views relative to social education on the Board of Education, it has set up a social education committee in the prefecture, city, town and village as its advisory organ. It promises something bright to social education in Japan that now, one year after the enforcement of the Law, the nation's understanding is gradually deepening towards the object of the Law and the system of social education is being improved day after day.

On the other hand, in addition to these efforts of legal arrangement, the Ministry of Education has held social education research conventions in a few places in prefectures all over the country annually since 1947. This convention is to have representatives of all classes of people assemble, discuss and study the problems of social education of the day, showing a total of one hundred thousand odd persons gathered, and playing an important role in the development of activities of social education in the local districts. Furthermore, it is not to be overlooked that among the various groups, facilities and means of society, the consciousness of essentially participating in social education has arisen. That is to say, to-day, publication, broadcasting, theatrical performances, moving pictures, music, sports and recreation are all considered the most powerful means of social education, and, for instance, the institution of the "Press Code" and "Rules of Film Ethics" tells how things are going on.

B. Arrangement and Activity of Facilities of Social Education

The present state of our facilities of social education is at an exceedingly low ebb as compared with those of the advanced nations of the world, whose arrangement and expansion are pressing tasks of our social education.

(1) Libraries:

The real conditions of our libraries are very far from satisfactory both in quality and quantity which, public and private ones combined, number less than 1,550 in all, while public ones are spread only to about 12 % of the cities, towns and villages throughout the country.

What is worse, of those only 229 libraries possess over 3,000 volumes. In these circumstances, it is quite significant that the Library Law has been promulgated this year. By

The first and the most difficult and important problem is that of finance. Among new universities which were born under destitution of the nation and the people, there are some which are not worthy to be called universities on account of financial difficulty. Of course the financial problems are not limited to universities, only, but it is a big problem covering the entire field of education. But when a university which ought to contribute to the development of our science and culture, suffers from research economy as at present, it will be unable to fulfil its mission. Sufficient university finance is indeed the vital question of the new university.

In the second place there is the problem of completion of equipment. It is natural that a university requires necessary equipment to fulfil its mission. The university establishment standards were set up for the purpose to show standards of university equipment, but there are a good many universities which lost school buildings and suffered other damages from war disaster. Though the buildings were spared, due to lack of experimental and laboratory equipment, technical education is carried on with difficulty in some universities, while in others on account of lack of library, students are unable to fully pursue their studies. In all respects equipment of a new university, forms an important problem which calls for completion and expansion.

In the third place, over against physical equipment there is the problem of human equipment or the problem of teachers. Needless to say that the effect of education depends upon the teaching staff. However, the new universities which rose in number to 202, including national, public and private ones, are confronted with poverty of teachers both in quality and quantity. This is especially true of the aspect of general culture now aimed at by the new university. Besides, when we consider the depreciation of quality of elementary and secondary teachers, the problem of furnishing teacher-training universities with good teachers, is really a serious one.

Moreover, to make the teaching staff of a new university fuller, and in order to call many good teachers to it, the improvement of their pay is an urgent problem.

These three are the most important problems with which the new university is confronted, and unless they are solved, growth of the new university will be almost hopeless.

Chapter V. Progress of Social Education

A. Promotion of Social Education and Enactment of Social Education Law

After the war, Japan's social education has achieved remarkable progress and is becoming the motive power both in fact and name of Japan's reconstruction side by side with school education. The social education which was always content with its subordinate position to the school regime before the war, has now made such progress that, without it, nothing of school education itself can even be thought of. By what we will describe as social education below in this chapter, we refer to the organized educational activities (including physical training and recreation) which are chiefly aimed at youth and adults except for educational activities conducted as school educational curricula. And you are requested to note that it is broader

Formerly France invited about a half-dozen of beneficiary students each year, altogether some 50 up to date. These students, though few in number, were selected by rigid examination and were all All people, who after returning home are working as first class cultured people, and have contributed much to exchange of civilization between the two countries. During the war this system was interrupted for some ten years. However, it was resumed this year by the good will of the French Government, whereupon the Ministry established an examination committee, selected 6 students and these people are to sail for France toward the end of August.

Such is the system of studying abroad by the good will of foreign governments and under their charge, but apart from this, now the plan is under way for sending scientists and technicians abroad by our trade fund.

Under this plan within a certain amount of the trade fund and with the object of promoting science and technique for rehabilitation of our economy, at the rate of one student for less than three years, a few scientists and technicians will be sent abroad. For selection of these students the Scientific and Technical Administration Committee will be responsible, and it is possible to send some 70-80 people each quarter of the year. However, to do this sufficiently, yen currency ought to be reserved. However, as the Governmental budget is only 25,000,000 yen a year, actually technicians of private firms which can afford the necessary money, furnished the greater part of such students.

Such an undertaking created a sensation among our national university professors, about 300 of whom applied for study-abroad, but under the present financial circumstances mentioned above we can send only about 20 people annually. This shows a big contrast to the state before the war when we could send more than one hundred people annually, and each one for two or three years; which is very regrettable.

Needless to say that to exchange professors between nations is very profitable for deep understanding of each country's civilization, and contributes much toward progress of world culture. The standard of our science, especially that of certain fields of fundamental science, is not lower than the highest standard of the world and the number of students who are invited to foreign countries for instruction and study is on the rise.

On the other hand there is a strong desire in our country to invite good foreign professors to get help and guidance, but there is a great hindrance toward this attempt due to housing shortage and the devastated condition after the defeat. Consequently, the British Government sent to our university Dr. Blunden, a first class poet, as a member of its Mission which event was keenly appreciated by all our cultured people. Recently an understanding was reached between Stanford University and Tokyo University and five professors were sent to Tokyo for seminars. Also many American physicians came here and the Japan American Physicians' Conference was held. These and others surely have given great impetus to our learned circles.

M. Future Problems of New Universities

As stated above, the new university started with an entirely new mission as the highest educational organ in our new educational system to rectify various defects shown by old universities and colleges. However, the new university now faces many problems which press for solution, and is already lies in the dark shadow at its start.

complemented with the completion of the intra-mural organization of the universities, the Ministry of Education expects, to reap a better crop.

K. The Scholarship System

In view of the bad condition of student affairs; the Japan Scholarship Society, special legal person, is set up to do student welfare work. In accordance with Japan Scholarship Society Law and with a loan from the Treasury, this institution is giving scholarships to those excellent scholars who cannot go to school for financial reasons. Its operating expenses in fiscal year 1950 amount to ¥ 1,500,000,000 and those who are benefited by it number 95,700. The latter figure counts for 10 % of all the students in colleges and universities and 2 % in senior high schools, but comparing the percentages with 21.4 % in "arbeit" students and 60.0 % in "Arbeit"-lacking students, we find that the fund is far too small. Such being the case, the Student Welfare Council has resolved upon "increase of the scholarship fund." The existing students' predicament necessitates all the more expansion and strengthening of the scholarship system. Besides the above national facility, there are some scholarships in local public bodies, in business firms, and in civilian institutions; but due to lack of funds, they all being petty affairs, expansion and completion are required in these institutions also.

L. Studying Abroad and Exchange Professors

Blockade being lifted so to speak after the long war, what our scientists and educators desired earnestly, was to go abroad and actually see the advanced condition of the learned world brought about in the west during the long blank isolation of our learned circles and take in the results there achieved. However, it seemed almost impossible to send students under international circumstances after the war.

However, through America's good will under the GARIOA fund it was announced that opportunity will be given for about 50 Japanese teachers to study about a year in American universities. This news caused a great sensation in our educational circle. In view of importance of rehabilitation of Japan's education it was decided that these 50 people should be chosen from among those who are engaged in teacher training. The Ministry of Education conducted a selective America. Later the plan of the U. S. Government was enlarged and last fall it was announced that 100 more graduates of Japanese universities would be sent to America for about a year. With the aim of utilizing experiences which students get in America for promotion of public welfare of our country, this time the Ministry decided to recruit from the general students who would do public welfare work in future. How the plan was welcomed by the public can be seen from the fact that as many as 6,491 people applied for the selective examination. The method of examination was just the same as before. First a written examination in English was given and on a certain number of successful candidates, the Examining Committee conducted the character test, English conversation test and the physical examination to decide the final successful candidates. Thus at the second time 142 students were selected, but later it was announced by the American authorities that 160 more should be accepted, so after all it became possible that altogether 281 students might be sent to America and most of them sailed in July this year.

Then good will also was shown by the French Government for sending students abroad.

following programs:

(1) Establishment of Student Welfare Council.

To consider a counter plan for students' straitened circumstances mentioned above, the Student Welfare Committee was set up in 1948 as advisory organ to the Minister of Education,¹⁾ and the committee after six months of deliberation reported on concrete measures for student welfare aid. But to cope with the situation in which students' living grew harder and harder from social circumstances, in July 1949 the Student Welfare Council was set up according to the Ministry of Education Establishment Law, Article 24, and the council is making surveys and inquiries about various aspects of student welfare aid and also is making much deliberation on the establishment of the basic policy.

The council without delay requesting the Ministry of Education in making its budget for fiscal 1951 to (1) increase the scholarship fund, (2) add to the student welfare facilities fund, (3) make a new appropriation for expenses for welfare and guidance in national universities, the Ministry is making efforts for the realization of its requests.

(2) Establishment and completion of the organ for student welfare aid.

At the start of new-system universities, the welfare-guidance section was set up as part of their structure, and the affairs of welfare and guidance are transacted by the respective university always keeping in close touch with the students in order to provide them with comfortable seats of learning, but in view of the importance of the work, the necessity is recognized of speedily completing these organs.

(3) Expansion and invigoration of the activities of "Foundational Society" Student Protection and Aid Society.

On the other hand, as an aid organ of welfare and guidance of each school, the above society was set up on February 1947 and it has been endeavoring for the stability of students' board and abode as well as for reduction of their school expenses. And in view of the existing economic condition, we are going to invigorate and expand the society's activities, and especially are aiming at the consolidation and expansion of the organ of student placement and creation and betterment of students' halls (all-round students' dormitories) and their equipments.

(4) Counter measure for students' Arbeiten.

The students are confronted with the above difficulties in their side jobs. For this, the Ministry of Education is taking the following steps: (1) Informal talks influential businessmen, (2) students' participation in summer vacations, etc. in public enterprises like nature preservation, (3) procuremeent of tutors' jobs, (4) encouragement of productive work by students, etc.

Besides, with the view of improving students' board and of relieving their school expenses, we are trying to further and develop the work of the Federation of Students' Meal Halls and the Student Welfare Corporation. And in the new-system universities, it is strongly required of them "to do the work of welfare and guidance of their own students", and viewed from the existing situation of student affairs, it is important to unfold all the more vigorous activities on their behalf. Giving appropriate help and advice as occasion calls, and

mentary collections of documents, to narrow in their specific fields of interest, whose finances were apt to be neglected, whose improvement had been fantastically partial, and whose personnel had to be fundamentally re-educated so that they might have knowledge and experience necessary for each of the specific fields of librarian duty, along with the education of the specialists in this field.

The position of the library in the new-system university is, as referred to in the University Standard and elsewhere, of far greater importance for the education of the students, than that of the old-system university. As to the attached libraries, many of them have lost during the war times most of their books as well as their facilities, without any means left for supplementing new books, periodicals, and especially various printed materials from over-seas, the result being that they are deplorable deficient for use. Besides, most of the Government universities have been established on the basis of the former universities, higher schools, and colleges existing within the prefectures, and accordingly their departments and faculties are scattered here and there, with so many dispersed branch libraries, the organic functions of all of which have been naturally hampered beyond description.

In order to remove these obstacles, the Ministry of Education is making every effort for importing, through the kindness of the C. I. & E. in Tokyo, as many foreign books as possible. Along with this, researches are being made by the cooperation of the Sub-committee for University Library of the Library Association, the University Standard Association, and the Ministry of Education, so that the equipment personnel, and the management of the university library may be operated under appropriate standard and be further improved on that basis.

J. Students' Guidance and Welfare

The system and substance of the new universities have been dealt with, and next comes the question of the students' guidance and welfare.

The instability of living of the people at large consequent upon the social unrest, and the change of economic circumstances after the war, having immediately had so much influence upon students' living that, although the praise of the principle of equal opportunity for education is lauded both in the Japanese Constitution and Fundamental Law of Education, the reduced economic circumstances have made it difficult for students and pupils to continue their studies and as a result produced absentees even in the compulsory education of elementary and junior high schools. Students and pupils in upper schools like universities and senior high schools, etc., have need of what is called "Arbeiten". And yet, only 21.4% of the students are having Arbeiten, which realistically shows how difficult it is for them to continue their studies.

It cannot escape our notice that such social unrest and economic poverty drive part of the students to violent political movements, and that forming groups like Zen-Gaku-Ren (Federation of All Japan Students' Autonomous Unions), these students often act in contradiction of the stipulations of Podies, Etc., Regulation Ordinance Or Potsdam Cabinet Order, etc., and the results of their conduct are the cause of our fear. Actual conditions like this are problems to be seriously considered, not only by educational circles, but also by society at large, so we must say that welfare and guidance of upper-school students are matters of especial importance.

To meet this situation, the Ministry of Education has devised and is carrying out the

post-graduate course is defined as: "to be engaged in teaching and studying scientific theories and application, to delve into their depths, and try to contribute toward the development of culture." The aim of the post-graduate course is to educate, on the basis of general and specific culture, specially able people with exact and deep knowledge and ability to make researches, and who will, through their originality, contribute to elevate the level of science, and, pertaining to their specific fields of study, be able to exert leadership in guiding scientific studies.

The University Accreditation Association has set forth the "Standard for Post-Graduate Course" covering the post-graduate course and the doctorship, while the University Establishment Council has, in answer to the inquiry by the Ministry of Education, published the standard for the establishment of the new system post-graduate course, which may be represented by award of doctorship. The standard intends to set up "Master" besides "Doctor", which has not been known in Japan. The acquisition of "Master" requires that the student will study in the post-graduate school for more than one year, attending the regular lectures, achieving 30 credits on special subjects, present the graduation thesis, and pass the examination. The degree of Master will thus be awarded to students who have studied specific fields on the basis of general culture given in the department and of broad views obtainable, and who possess profound knowledge and ability to pursue studies. As to the degree of Doctor, the University Establishment Council has not reached any definite conclusion, leaving room for further discussion.

However, according to the standard set forth by the University Accreditation Association for the establishment of the post-graduate school, the degree of Doctor will be awarded to a student, who has studied for more than three years in the post-graduate course, achieving 50 credits on specific subjects, presenting research thesis based on his original study, and has passed the final examination.

As is defined by the School Education Law, the Post-graduate course usually consists of several p. g. courses, but only one p. g. c. may form the post-graduate school. As a principle, the post-graduate school should be established on the basis of completed departments or of the research institutes.

Professors teaching in the post-graduate school may be supplied by those who teach in the departments or in the p. g. courses and they are required to have the degree of Doctor or scholastic merits equivalent to that degree.

In April this year, the four private universities, i. e., the Doshisha, the Ritsumeikan, the Kansai, and the Kanseigakuin Universities applied for the establishment of the new-system post-graduate courses to admit the graduates of their new-system university courses, and the Education Minister approved the establishment of courses, which lead to "master" degree, through the examination of the University Establishment Council.

I. Libraries attached to University

With a view to promoting activities in all fields of scientific researches and education activities, it will be of paramount importance to complete the equipment and realize the organic activities of libraries. Most of the old-system universities had complete libraries, each of which had books amounting to more than 500,000 volumes. As has been already pointed out by the Human Culture Advisory Commission, these libraries were mostly negative in their activities, too independent from each other, whose books were mainly frag-

education was unified to one system of four year university education, and as for medicine and dentistry in view of their special nature, we decided to give four year technical training for those who have finished the prescribed general education of over two years in other universities or departments to secure full general culture and profound technical information.

Again, accompanying revision of the medical law and others, now to all doctors, druggists and dentists the state examination is given especially, for doctors one year intern service is required before sitting for the state examination.

Former pharmacological institutions are now all turned to new universities, and as for medicine and dentistry, in a few years, starting from next year, all schools will gradually be operated under the new system of education.

G. Correspondence Course in the University

From the principle of equal opportunity of education, in order to give university education to as many people as possible correspondence education is effected in high schools as well as in universities.

In March this year the university correspondence course which awards people qualification of university graduation, was for the first time recognized by the Ministry of Education in Japan. Six university correspondence courses award such qualification. The correspondence education faculties set up in these six universities are law, economics, literature and home-making, and the total number of correspondence students is estimated at about 60,000 among whom non-credit students count some 40,000 and regular credit ones amount to some 20,000.

The course of study covers over four years, and in this minimum period of four years students ought to receive at least one year schooling to get the graduation qualification. It is ideal to make the period of schooling longer than two years as is done in America, but under the present conditions of our country for salaried people especially for those who live in the country, even this one year schooling by attendance is pretty hard for financial reasons.

Now schooling is arranged by availing of the summer vacation of each year for about six weeks each time.

As a rule the learning method involves the entire curriculum. Although it is more desirable to learn according to subjects as is practiced in America, under present conditions of our country due to lack of materials, difficulty in printing, desire on the part of students, etc. for the time being, we made it a rule to go through the curriculum.

As for the teaching method we provide students with specially written texts, guide-books, accept questions and give answers, and once a month correct and comment on the answers they send in for their assignment.

Crediting is done after all questions are answered and the final examination on subjects is finished.

Our university correspondence education plays an important role for dissemination of university education as well as for teacher training and in-service training.

H. Post-Graduate Course and the System of Doctorship

In Article 62 of the School Education Law, it is defined that the new-system university shall be able to establish the post-graduate school. In Article 65, the aim of the new system

you will see how eloquently this tells of the progress of technical education.

Although these educational institutions are engaged in training technicians, yet they are suffering from the shortage of educational expenses, a transitional phenomenon due to the educational reform. Thus there is now a great deal yet left to be desired in regard to the completion of the educational system, the expansion of facilities, the improvement of teaching method, and other educational contents. Hereafter these phases must be studied and improved. Above all else, in technical education you should attach importance to education through experimentation and practice, but the facilities essential thereto are exceedingly meager, which offers a task which requires an urgent solution.

F. Medical Education

Up to the present, medical education in our country has been performed under the parallel system of university training and college training. The university gives four year technical education for old higher school graduates, while the college gives four or five year professional education to old middle school graduates but in the past most colleges gave four year training.

Pharmacological education was conducted the same as the medical one under the parallel system of university and college training excepting that it was three year course, but as compared with the medical education mostly it depended upon college training.

As for dentistry some universities had a chair or consultation room for it, but as a rule a university had no special students of dentistry and dental education was chiefly done by a four year college work. Qualification of a doctor druggist or dentist was granted to those who had finished the prescribed courses in universities and colleges of certain legal standing, without assigning any state examination simply because they were graduates of those schools.

In order to meet the rising demand for physicians due to special war need, a grand scale expansion of medical education institutions was undertaken, which was performed not only by increase of the number of enrolled students, but also in the form of increase of the form of increase of the number of medical colleges. That is, apart from the special medical department which was added to all national universities with the medical department as well as to some public or private universities, quite a few new medical colleges were established under the control of the state or prefecture. Thus at the time of conclusion of war, there was a rapid increase of the number of medical students and graduates.

As a result, the phase of medical education after the war required a most difficult and largest scale readjustment in all fields of our education. The schools which suddenly popped up during the war were extremely imperfect viewed from the educational standpoint and could by no means be let alone.

Consequently, in 1946 according to the advice of the Public Health & Welfare Division, GHQ and under the principle that medical education should be conducted by university, we decided to decrease by the end of 1951 the number of medical students, after calculating the required number of doctors in our country in view of our population and others, and concerning present medical colleges those contents are full, were raised to the status of university, and as for the rest we asked them to suspend their teaching according to the annual plan, and before they die out we asked them to extend their course to five years and undertake the up-lift of doctors who go out into the world.

On the other hand, accompanying enforcement of the School Education Law, our higher

permission for starting the junior college in 1950 amounted to 186, of which 149 colleges were permitted.

It is too early to tell what will come out of the junior colleges which have started with the unique character and mission. But it may be said that they will successfully meet the desires of society in stopping the gap between the upper secondary education and the four year university and popularizing the university education as well as turning out specialized vocational people into the world.

Under the present educational system of our country, however, the junior college system is considered to be a temporary one.

E. Technical Education

To date, the universities and colleges have taken charge of technical education as higher educational institutes in this country. It is true that the training of technicians at these institutes fairly contributed to the rise of our industry in the past, but at the same time as mentioned in the preceding section, as far as the education of citizens is concerned, they were far from satisfactory, because of their having gone too far into the mere research of sciences and having laid emphasis on technical education alone. The educational reform has reorganized higher education and corrected the old defects, especially the foregoing points from their roots. It has come about that we bring up professional persons directly connected with the industrial world, and, at the same time esteeming general culture and trying to bring up impartial and amiable citizens as well as technicians truly useful to society, without straining after the study of sciences which are isolated from society for their own sakes. Although the fruitage of the new educational reform is yet to be seen, its fundamental principles have been established by the creation of "new system universities" while newly-educated technicians, we expect, will render their very notable services to our industrial circles,

Next, what is remarkable is the vocational education that started in the junior colleges this year.

As stated before, the junior college is a higher educational agency whose main object is to train special professional persons or the so-called semi-professional vocational men in a short period, into an agency of an entirely new character. It can be expected that there the technicians will be educated who are able enough to meet the requirements of the industrial world.

We shall now describe the actual state of our institutes for technical education. Economic reconstruction is imperative to our country in the destitute post-war condition, and reflecting in particular such movements in our social economy as the increase and security of foodstuffs, the promotion of export industry and the development of international trade, the education for productive and technical fields such as agriculture, industry, commerce and fishery has become active in the university education after the educational reform. There are 297 out of 377 new-system universities and junior colleges which are related to technical education, i. e. 132 out of 228 universities (4-year course) and 115 out of 149 Junior-colleges (2- or 3-year course). In other words as many as 385 faculties in the new universities (junior colleges inclusive) give technical subjects (44 agriculture, 6 fishery 89 engineering 89 economics and commerce, 81 home economics, 68 public sanitation and 8 others). Indeed,

The specialized education is conducted upon the basis of the general education thus given. In the old system university, despite the fact that many of the students studied to get a job in the world after all, the professional training was rather considered as the duty of the college and little importance was attached to it. In view of such defects of the past university, the new university has come to emphasize the vocational training meeting the needs of the actual life, as well as the scholastic studies, and aims at having the students well equipped with vocational qualifications when they graduate and at the same time as having them well qualified for the studies at the post-graduate school, if they so desire.

D. Junior College

As stated in the previous paragraphs, the old system universities, higher schools and colleges were amalgamated into the four year new universities by the drastic reform of the school system. But there were some which could not be immediately converted into the 4 year new universities because of the shortage in teaching staff, facilities, etc. So it was considered adequate to authorize the establishment of the 2 or 3 year college so that the switching over to the new university system may be effected easily. The Japan Education Reform Council adopted the resolution for the establishment of such college. So the Ministry of Education made the amendment to the School Education Law in June of 1949 so that the two year or three year college shall be officially recognized for the time being and be called the junior college. It is needless to say that the financial ability of the students, the problem of the woman students, the social desire for the training of professional people for a shorter period of time, etc. are also taken into consideration in the establishment of the junior college.

The University Chartering Council subsequently decided the accreditation standards of the junior college in August, 1949. According to this decision, the junior college, though a higher educational institution like the new system university, is characterized as the place of conducting the university education with special emphasis upon the training of practical, specialized vocation. Unlike the lower course of the four year university, it is an educational institution complete in itself for providing education directly useful for vocations. Since it can be established with comparative ease, it has also the secondary aims of diffusing and popularizing the university education and offering better facilities for the adult education of the community. The junior college does not adopt the faculty system but is departmentalized into courses or special departments.

The teachers are required to have the same qualifications as the teachers of the four year university and the qualifications required of the students for entrance are also the same. The unit system is also similarly adopted and the minimum requirement for the graduation of the two year "college" is as stated in the paragraphs of the accreditation standards of the university, to complete 20 units of the general culture course, 30 units of the specialized course and 10 units of either of the above two courses, totaling to 60 units, plus 2 units of physical education. If the units are completed in accordance with the provisions of the Educational Personnel Certification Law, the corresponding certificate will be granted. When the graduates wish to enter the four year university, the university which receives the application will examine the content and number of the units they have completed at the junior college, and may authorize the units to be counted as those completed at the university. It has not been decided yet whether or not the degree is conferred upon the graduates.

Though the junior college came into existence in 1950, those which applied for the

College, 90 credits of general subjects and 3 credits on physical education in the period of more than 3 years.

As to the present university accreditation standard, it has not been completed and has room left for further studies before it comes to assume a more perfect form. The standards already set forth and operated for the establishment of the university will have to undergo a further research and scrutiny. As to the application of these standards, there have not been taken necessary legal steps, which simply await imminent solution.

C. General Education and Specialized Education at University

The most remarkable reform effected in the new system university in regard to the content of education is that importance is placed both upon the general education and the specialized education. In the education of the old system college, the sole concern was to acquire the specialized techniques and the general education to cultivate the wider perspective and knowledge was almost neglected. In the old system university, on the other hand, the academic study and research was too much respected in spite of the graduates follow some vocation, and educational policy thereof was apt to be unpractical and aloof from the actual society at large.

So in the new system university, the general education has come to be emphasized first of all to remedy these past defects. The general education in this sense aims, as stated above, at rearing up persons of good sense to contribute to the construction of a peaceful, democratic society not centering too much upon the narrow specialized fields as before, but building the ground of wider perspective and knowledge. For providing such general education, the "University Standards" regulate that the General Culture Course should be divided into three groups of (1) Cultural Science, (2) Social Science and (3) Natural Science and that each university shall offer more than three courses for each group, totaling to 15 courses in the case of the university of faculty of liberal arts or 12 courses in the case of the university of faculty of science. On the part of the student, the students of liberal arts, are required to complete more than two courses of each of the three groups, including one foreign language course and more than 10 courses in total, which may be converted into more than 40 units; and the students of science to complete more than two courses of each of the three groups, including one foreign language course, and more than 9 courses in total which may be converted into more than 36 units. In other words, about one third of the required number of units for the graduation is set aside for the general course.

Though the above standards of the general education are put into effect in the present universities, the University Accreditation Association revised the standards in July this year to the effect that the university should offer 15 courses of the general education including more than three courses of each of cultural, social and natural science groups, each course offering the instruction of more than four units as a principle with the exception of more than two foreign language courses, each of which should offer the instruction of more than eight units. On the part of the students, they are required to complete more than three courses of each of the three groups and 12 units every year.

The manner in which the general education is given, varies according to universities. Some universities have the faculty of general culture, but most universities use the first one year and half for general education. There are also some which conduct the general education parallel with the specialized education throughout the four years.

curriculum, which is yet to be completed. The aforesaid principle of one government university in each prefecture is closely connected with the ideal here dilated upon. This principle has been set forth so that the equal opportunity for education may be realized for the purpose of elevating the level of local educational culture, which will make it possible to integrate and solidify schools in local districts, which in turn will be managed more successfully by supplying each other's needs. Only this will realize the ideal of the new-system universities, consisting of the aforesaid their fundamental aims.

B. Standard for Establishment of University

In planning for the establishment of the university with its mission such as this, it was necessary to set forth the standards for such important matters as its equipment, organization, organization, of the staff, departments, and faculties. In the Reports of the U. S. Education Mission already referred to, the following statement is made, advising the necessity of setting up the standard for the establishment of the university. It is the duty of the responsible organ that, prior to the permission for a school for higher education, it should consider the aim, the economic resources, the intended teaching personnel, the scheduled buildings and equipment of the school, and the necessity of that specific university being established in that area; and should superintendent that the school shall meet such requirements given in the standard.

With a view to promulgating the standard for the establishment of the university, the Education Ministry organized, in Nov. 1945, a council for the establishment of the standard for the university, consisting of personnel representing the Government, Public, and Private old system universities, whose duty it was to study and research into the requirements for the intended university, reaching a draft plan for the time being in June 1947.

The current "University Accreditation" is the draft approved by the first general meeting of the aforesaid "Council for the Establishment of the Standard for the University. This draft has been under the discussion of the University Accreditation Council, and has undergone some revision and addition until the present form was accomplished.

The standards thus far established for the university include, beside this university accreditation, the Standard for University Correspondence Education, the Standard for Post-Graduate Course, and the Standard for the Establishment of the Junior College, all of which, except the last mentioned, have been prepared by the hands of the University Accreditation Council. The draft for the Standard for the Establishment of the Junior College has been prepared by the University Establishment Council, with which Education Ministry consulted.

These standards for the establishment of the university have shown the standards pertaining to the equipment of the university, and its post-graduate course, their organization, their kinds of departments and faculties, and the regulations concerning the title of bachelor. All the new-system universities have been established on the bases of the standards thus set forth, after having been examined by the University Establishment Council.

According to the standards for the establishment of the university, the credit system has replaced the year system, and the acquisition of the title of "bachelor" is possible for 120 credits of subjects and 4 credits on physical education, achieved in the period of more than 4 years. In the 2-year Junior College the student has to achieve 60 credits of subjects and 2 credits on physical education in the period of more than 2 years, and in the 3-year Junior

Chapter IV The Reform of the Higher Education

A. The Character of the New System University

As the result of the reform of school system, there has emerged the University as defined by the School Education Law, of which the course of study is in principle 4 years. Part of such universities were exceptionally started in 1948, while the rest of them were started in 1949. These new system universities stand for higher educational organs such as the old system universities, high schools, colleges, and various schools for teacher training. From the standpoint of their aims and contents of education, however, they are entirely new educational organs distinct from their antecedents, in that the former aims at the education of the youths as nucleus who will build up the foundation of the new cultural and peaceful Japan, while the latter had so many predilections. The point is clearly stated in Article 52 of School Education Law, which reads: the aim of the new system university is "to impart a broad knowledge as center of learning, to teach and study specific fields of science, and to develop the intellectual, moral and practical ability of application", which clearly distinguishes the new institute from the old.

To summarize the various characteristics of the new university, the major points will be as follows: Firstly, the new university emphasizes the importance of general culture. Secondly, along with the preparation for scientific researches, importance is laid upon the need of vocational training. Of these, the first will be more concretely stated as: the new university aims at giving, as preliminary to entering into specific education, broad basic subjects covering various fields of study as social science, cultural science, and natural science. By this is meant for the student to be able to establish healthy views of life and of the world, to perfect his character, and to become an able leader of the state and the community. By this is meant to correct long-standing ills familiar to the older organs of higher education, especially of colleges and various teacher training schools, which are pointed out in the Report of the first U. S. Education Mission to Japan, to the effect that "there is very little occasion to give general education, and too much tendency to narrow the specification of learning, with overcumbent burden of vocational education." This new direction of putting emphasis upon general culture is also adopted in the principle of establishment of the universities, with the result that one government university in each prefecture has, beside the teacher training department, the department or division of general culture without exception.

The second characteristic may be said to belong to the scholastic nature of the university and its phase of training vocational students. In the old system universities and colleges, there was a discrepancy between the phases of preparing for research and study and of vocational training. Its natural result was that the two kinds of training went not together but separately. On one hand abstract theories reigned over all fields of education, without much use for practical life. And on the other, danger was seen everywhere of putting too much emphasis on technical education without solid foundation needed for the superstructure of true learning. In the new system universities, however, efforts are being made so that these two separate phases may be brought together and be finally integrated into one. It is expected that this idea will soon be realized in the form of the university

Treasury's share of the compulsory education computed on these bases of the number of teachers has come to be included in the local finance equalization fund as the system of the equalization fund comes into force. Thus the National Treasury's share is not to be granted as specifically earmarked for the subsidy for the educational expenses. So it is now greatly apprehended or to what degree the results of the great efforts made by the Ministry of Education achieve the desired effects.

(2) Future problems:

As mentioned above, there is still very much to be desired in securing the quality and quantity of teachers, and the measures towards that, are confronted with many obstacles. Therefore, nothing is more sufficiently effective than the establishment of the educational finance. As the future problems relative to the teacher training, the following may be listed:

(1) There is a very small number of applicants for the faculty designed for teacher training, with the subsequent result of inferior quality. The reason is that under the present economical conditions the very entrance into the university means a great economical burden, and those who wish to be teachers lose interest in the profession after all, because teachers are poorly paid.

One of the measures to meet that situation is to improve and expand the scholarship system for the prospective teachers so that they may study free from economical anxiety, and to take a step for the better treatment of teachers in view of the importance of their responsibility. Though the recent revision of the pay system of the general public personnel made the salary of the teacher higher than that of the government employees as far as the basic salary is concerned, the fact is that the teacher is not always getting more income owing to the insufficiency of the over-time allowances and other allowances.

(2) Though the authorized courses are important programs for the improvement of the teacher's quality, at present when the quantity of teachers is not sufficient as mentioned above, they often give rise to the problem in teaching pupils while teachers are absent for attending the course, or to the problem of over-work on the part of the teachers. At the same time, attention should be paid to the problem that the teachers attending the course suffer from the economical burden upon their insufficient salary. On the other hand, some of the lecturers of the course who are mostly teachers of the faculty designed for teacher training, are not competent enough in teaching. So some people say it is necessary to re-educate or train them for the purpose.

To meet these situations, the present program should be examined and amended so that the authorized courses may be offered on the more planned basis not to interfere with the regular teaching. At the same time, it is needed that the national and prefectural government should provide necessary financial assistance to lighten the economical burden of the participants. To improve the quality of the lectures, another IFEL program may be necessary.

F. Future Problems Involved in Teacher Training

(The present situations of the quality and quantity of teachers and future problems)

(1) Present situations in respect to the quality and quantity of teachers

Though the situations of the quality and quantity of teachers is gradually being improved, there are still many problems left to be solved in the future, relative to the obstacles arising from the financial and pay problems, and the discontinuance of the system in which the National Treasury bears the share of the compulsory education expenditures, with the local finance equalization fund system.

As to the quality of teachers, first of all, the number of the non-qualified teachers of the elementary schools was put at 25.9% and that of the lower secondary school at 12% in the years 1949-50. In terms of prefectures, the highest percentage was 26.8% and the lowest 2.9% in the case of the elementary schools. When the quality of teachers is considered in terms of the educational background, the number of the graduates from the college level is 54% of the total number, in the case of the elementary school and 75.7% in the case of the lower secondary school. This further considered in terms of prefectures, 88.2% is the highest and 30.9% the lowest in the case of the elementary school and 93.6% is the highest and 60.2% the lowest in the case of the lower secondary school. This implies that there is a great difference between prefectures. It is also very conspicuous that there are many young teachers; for the number of the elementary school teachers who are under 26 years of age and who have not served for more than five years, is over 50% of all teachers.

To meet these situations, though the Ministry of Education and prefectural boards of education have endeavored for the reeducation of the teachers through the in-service education, the authorized courses and the authorized correspondence education, it is an important problem in this connection to provide some financial assistance to the participants in such programs for their financial burden.

As to the quantity of teachers, the number of teachers per class was, in the case of the elementary school, put at 1.22 as the average of the whole country, and in terms of prefectures, 1.40 as the highest and 1.03 as the lowest; and, in the case of the lower secondary school, put at 1.59 as the average and, in terms of prefectures, 1.81 as the highest and 1.35 as the lowest.

In the fixed sum for the fixed number system enforced on Jan. 1 of 1949 in disbursing the National Treasury's share of the compulsory education expenditures and, therefore, in the budget for the fiscal 1949-50 year, the basic number of teachers per class, whose size was put at 50 pupils, on the average, was reduced from 1.5 in the case of the elementary school and 1.8 in the case of the lower secondary school to 1.35 and 1.7 respectively. This was a great setback to the efforts to secure the necessary quantity of teachers. Therefore the Ministry of Education concentrated great efforts successfully to secure the basic number of 1.5 teacher of the elementary school and 1.8 teacher of the lower secondary school per class of 50 pupils on the average in the 1950-51 budget. We also succeeded in securing the additional appropriation for the teachers in the sanatorium, outside the above category, on the basis that they amount to 1.33% of the total number of teachers. But the National

the other, of the teacher's unions as labor unions.

The former developed when teachers united themselves according to their fields and functions in the new educational system to study and discuss, in cooperation, on the new educational and social problems. They were further organized and expanded until nationwide organizations such as the National Principals' Association appeared. They were organized, of course, on the basis of the free will of the teachers and by no means by the direction or pressure of the government. Besides the national organizations, there are study groups of teachers, etc. at the individual or local levels, positively planned and put into effect at various parts of the country.

In contrast with these organizations, most noticeable both in the scale and activities are the teachers' unions as labor unions.

Prior to the termination of the War, the labor union movements were prohibited throughout the nation, but after the end of the War positive policy to stimulate the formation of the labor union was taken as a step to promote the democratization of Japan. Thus, the teachers' unions came into existence in various parts of the country. Before long, these unions were unified into the All Japan Teachers' Union and the Japan Educators' Union. In March of 1947, both Unions concluded successfully the Collective Bargain with the Minister of Education. At last in June of the same year the two Unions were united into a nationwide single union, including the unions of the universities, higher schools and colleges at the same time. Thus the Japan Educational Personnel Union came into existence.

Meanwhile, the teachers unions carried on very vigorous activities for the betterment of the unreasonably low pay of teachers. But the other labor unions, particularly the government employees' unions, were so offensive in their labor campaigns, as to threaten General Strikes again and again. So serious was the situation, at last in July, 1948, that General Mac Arthur's letter was issued to prohibit the conclusion of the Collective Bargain and sabotaging by the public service personnel's unions. In December, 1948, the National Public Service Law was revised not to recognize the labor unions of the national school teachers but only the social and welfare activities of the teachers' association. To the teachers of the public school, however, is still left the freedom of forming the labor union. But it is expected that they will come to be treated the same as the national public service personnel by the Local Public Service Law which is expected to be enacted in the near future. The teachers' unions and some experts are opposing such a measure as not to recognize this organization as a labor union. So this is now an important problem to be studied. As to the teacher of the private schools, however, there are no such problems at all.

The Japan Educational Personnel Union is the federation of the prefectural teachers unions, claiming the membership of 550,000, of which 450,000 are the public school teachers. Its activities may be divided into the improvement of teachers' treatment, democratization of education welfare movements and cultural movements. Characteristics are its political movements, particularly the vigorous activities in the election campaign, intended to put pressure upon the National Diet and Prefectural Assemblies in their legislation and upon the administrative agencies in their administration. In the recent election for the House of Councillors it had a number of successful candidates, while strong criticism is directed against their election campaigns.

of general service personnel, while payment overtime allowance which had been recognized for clerical personnel was discontinued. Although the pay base has been raised since then to 3,791 yen base, 6,307 yen base in accordance with the raise of commodity price, there was no change in this principle of pay system. Now the average salary of teachers is 5,866 yen with the elementary school, 6,233 yen with the lower secondary school and 6,562 yen with the part-time upper secondary school. As to the total pay including salary and allowances, 7,000 yen with elementary schools, 7,633 yen with lower secondary schools and 8,395 yen with part-time upper secondary schools. However, teachers are very differently treated by prefectures, and the difference amounts to 1,500 to 2,000 yen at present exclusive of allowances. This is considered to have happened because the salaries of teachers are much influenced by the condition of local finance, zeal for education, strength of labor front which is more or less different for each prefecture, city, town and village. This local discrimination will still remain as a problem not to be solved merely by the idealistic operation of the local finance equalization fund system.

(3) Welfare

Teachers' sanatoria are being established in each prefecture with some subsidy from the National Treasury for the benefit of teachers suffering from tuberculosis, and teachers' houses are being established in cities, towns and villages. Teachers' welfare program is thus gradually realized, but it is still insufficient.

The largest organization for the welfare of teachers is the Public School Personnels' Mutual Aid Association which was instituted on July 1, 1943. This Association, with its main office in the Ministry of Education and with its branch offices in all prefectural boards of education, is the nation-wide association composed of 650,000 members. Its operation is conducted by the operation council composed of the representatives of teachers' unions and the superintendents of education of prefectural boards of education, and its expenses are met by the instalments (the total of these two amounts to 2,930,000,000 yen), and the State subsidizes about half as much as the local public bodies' share (652,000,000 yen included in the local finance equalization fund). The members are granted medical expenses, child-birth expenses, and those members who are not receiving pension, or their families, may receive the lump sum retiring grant, disability pension, pension for bereaved family, etc. (one half in case of family). Furthermore, loan of the fund to the members is also scheduled for the future. As to the pension for public school teachers, the Pension Law applies *mutatis mutandis* to most of them, exclusive of those who became teachers in and after 1948, but it is considered that cities, towns and villages cannot bear the burden. Therefore, such organization as a national pension association will become necessary in the future. Also with regard to retiring allowance, cities, towns and villages are short of capacity to bear it, and it is a serious problem for the teachers of schools established by cities, towns and villages. It is expected that this problem will become greater and more serious, if the business of the retiring allowance be transferred to cities, towns and villages to be borne by them.

E. Organizational Activities of Teachers

The post war organizations of teachers may be classified in character into two major groups: one is of the professional organizations aiming at the research and discussion, and

cratization of education taken in view of the special duties of educational personnel.

As for the status of teachers, the educational personnel of public elementary and secondary schools were formerly able to receive treatment equal to that of government officials but were not regarded as government officials. Accordingly, they were always placed in disadvantageous positions. However, since 1946, the principals and teachers of elementary and lower secondary schools as well as the principals, teachers and assistant-teachers of upper secondary schools have come to acquire the status of the formally government officials. This helped them to obtain favorable standing with regard to their salaries. Afterwards, by the enactment of the Board of Education Law and the Law for Special Regulations concerning Educational Personnel, all the personnel of schools other than national and private schools became the public service personnel of the prefectures, cities, towns or villages, which established the schools concerned, and obtained the specific status of the principal, teacher etc. At the same time all the principals and teachers were guaranteed of the special status as mentioned below that was not recognized with regard to other public service personnel:

(1) The appointment and promotion of teachers are made by election and especially those of the university presidents, professors, and heads of divisions and secretariats are conducted by the university administrative organ;

(2) No transference, dismissal and disciplinary punishment of the presidents, teachers, and deans of faculties of universities may be made against their will, unless all the facts and materials, are examined in public by the university administrative organ;

(3) The length of suspension from office is decided by the university control organ with regard to the presidents, teachers and deans of faculties of universities. And the period of suspension from office of the principals and teachers, other than universities, on account of tuberculosis, is two years, and during such period, the principals and teachers may get the full payment of their salaries and due allowances.

(4) The age limit of the presidents, teachers, and deans of faculties and the term of office of the presidents and deans of faculties may be determined solely by the university control organ.

(2) Salaries and Allowances

The salaries and allowances of teachers were formerly less than those of general service personnel. Especially prior to 1940, the salaries and allowances of the teachers of public schools were paid by cities, towns and villages concerned. Accordingly, the level of their salaries was far lower than those of general public service personnel on account of the financial pressure of cities, towns and villages. Since 1940, the salaries of these teachers came to be paid half and half by the state and the prefectures concerned, which much improved the treatment of teachers. But, they were still about 10 percent less than those of the general public service personnel. In other words, while the average salary of these teachers was 64 yen, that of the government officials was 72 yen in 1945. However, at the second conversion to 2,920 yen salary base in 1948, through the first one in 1946, the position classification system was introduced into the pay system to some extent and at the same time the discriminative treatment by sex was abolished. Besides, special conversion was conducted with regard to teachers in view of the peculiar nature of education. Thus, their salaries were changed to the level by 2 or 3 salary numbers higher than the salaries

In these courses are best utilized the handbooks prepared by the Ministry of Education. Discussion and work-shop method are adopted in addition to lecturing. The authorization of the units completed is made after strict test or examination of the thesis or material submitted. Besides, in order to turn out competent lecturers, IFIL program, which depends largely upon the invited U. S. educational leaders, is under progress, with the assistance of CIE.

(2) Workshop is a new device of re-education which was highly desired as the result of evaluation of the former short course or conferences. In this institution the teachers in service gather with the practical problems of their own and join their efforts for the solution of the problems.

The Ministry of Education has been sponsoring workshops for the teachers of the elementary schools and the lower secondary schools respectively since 1949 on the planned basis with the whole country divided into eight regions and in the year 1950-51 the Ministry has established close liaison with the teacher training universities in carrying the programs. The workshop for the teachers of the kindergartens and that of education for the handicapped also started this year. Besides, the national schools are sponsoring the workshop on the observation, participation, practical training and demonstration in consideration of their characteristics as the new experimental schools. Still another workshop is in operation this year which is for the elevation of the quality of the university professors, particularly for teachers in the educational course and the teachers in charge of the subjects which deal with new fields or of which the teaching staff is considered weak.

(3) With the provisions in the Law Concerning Special Regulations for Educational Personnel such as: "Educational personnel should be given opportunity of receiving the training to improve themselves," "Teachers may leave the place of service for the purpose of improving themselves, with approval of the chief, unless it causes trouble in their giving instructions," "Educational personnel may receive the training to improve themselves over a long period, without any change of the status, in accordance with is regulated by the competent authorities," some teachers, though small in number, are enjoying the study at the seminar rooms of the universities or science study rooms, while promising teachers went to the United States for study through the kindness of the U. S. government.

D. Problems of Status and Treatment of Teachers

It may be said that the status and treatment of teachers have been greatly improved in comparison with those of general public service personnel in Japan which has started all over again to organize itself as a cultural nation. It is partly due to the teachers union mentioned below which has made considerably good and effective services, but it is chiefly due to the fact democratized Japan has come to have better understanding of education and teachers.

(1) Status of Teachers

In the first place it is to be noted that educational personnel were screened more strictly and in wider scope than other public service personnel in order to remove and exclude those who have militaristic and ultra-nationalistic ideas and made such actions and expressed such ideas. Of course this was a natural issue brought about by acceptance of Potsdam Declaration. However it was at the same time the first step in demo-

having the new educational system and the courses of study thoroughly known and understood by them. These educational leaders played the principal part in carrying out the autonomous, transmitting programs at the prefectural level.

(3) The short courses and the conferences were also sponsored for the educational consultants, who are the advisors of teachers in solving problems, and also for the principals, who are responsible for the operation of the school, to let them understand the new functions and duties.

(4) In order to meet the reform in the teacher training system the workshops were opened for the teachers of the normal schools to study the teacher training course and the general education course. Teachers participated in them of their own accord and had lectures, discussions, observations, etc.

(5) The handbook is an easy medium by which many teachers can be informed of the new reforms. While there were many publications compiled by the Ministry of Education for the explanation, propagation and recommendation of the reforms of new education, there were also not a few private publications published freely. Of those compiled by the Ministry, most were for the guidance in the schools. They were compiled by committees, each composed of from 10 to 30 experts who were mostly teachers, with the advices and assistance from CIE officers concerned. They were distributed free or at a price slightly over cost.

Through these transmitting stages of the new educational principles, the emphasis of the re-education and in-service education programs has come to be placed upon the concrete studies based upon the new educational principles and the elevation of teacher's quality, and some new methods were applied to them. In correspondence to this program, the definite provision is made concerning teachers research and study in the Special Regulations for the Educational Personnel, that "educational personnel should make constant efforts for improving themselves in order to fulfil their responsibilities." The Boards of Education also have come to make the provisions to the effect that "the Boards of Education should make efforts for establishing and carrying out the plans concerning the teacher's efforts to improve themselves, including the facilities needed for the purpose and the means to stimulate such efforts." With such tendency, the following are specifically being carried on or planned.

(1) As mentioned in the previous paragraphs, the in-service education courses and the authorized courses or the correspondence education which take their place are being offered with a view to making it possible for the teachers already in service long enough, to obtain the certificate of higher grade in accordance with the newly enforced teacher certification system as well as to elevate their quality. The Ministry of Education has opened the in-service education course at the teacher training universities and some other universities which is scheduled to receive about 48,600 teachers of the kindergartens, elementary schools, lower and upper secondary schools for the blind and the schools for the deaf in the year 1950-51 and another 50,000 teachers in the year 1951-52. For those teachers who cannot attend this course or the authorized course because they are in service in out-of-the-way areas, the authorized correspondence education is under way. It will cover about 100,000 teachers in 1950 and 109,888 in 1951.

At the prefectural levels, the authorized courses are in operation under the guidance and recognition of the universities in the areas concerned, under which 177,073 teachers are expected to complete 8 units in the year 1950-51 and 51,256 teachers in the year 1951-52.

well as that of credits for the subjects of culture for educational profession.

(6) Transference of the certificate granting power to local authorities:

The transference of educational administration to the local authorities is now extensively under way, centering in the enactment of the Board of Education Law, and the prefectural board of education or the prefectural governor is entitled to grant certificates, the former centralized way being improved thereby.

(7) Revocation and invalidation of the certificates:

In case a person committed a misconduct that is incompatible with an educational personnel, his certificate may be revoked, and those of persons who have been sentenced to imprisonment or a heavier penalty, become invalid. Inasmuch as the certificate is absolutely necessary for anyone to become an educator, such people as above are naturally excluded from the profession.

Next, the Law for the Enforcement of the Educational Personnel Certification Law enacted and enforced simultaneously with the Educational Personnel Certification Law aims at making necessary transitional arrangements between the new and the old certification system and avoiding needless friction and confusion, particularly securing to some extent vested rights for the educational personnel now in service. Among the principal steps taken, the following may be enumerated:

(1) Persons who hold former certificates are deemed to have new ones in accordance with the kind and level of the certificates they hold.

(2) Proper certificates are conferred on those who have good school careers and qualifications, like the graduates of the old-system universities, considering the balance with the new certification system, pending the inquiry made on their character, scholarship, teaching and physique.

(3) Where those falling under the preceding categories (1) and (2) have a reasonable number of years of continual service, the way is open to them of granting one-grade upper certificate, by having them acquire necessary credits by in-service education and further making inquiry on their character, scholarship, teaching and physique.

C. Re-education Program of Teachers and In-service Education

Because the new reform was not made only in the aspects of the content, method and system but also made in all the aspects of policies and economics, in a short space of time and abruptly at that, there rose the need to conduct a temporary re-education for a short space of time for all the educational personnel in service in order to meet these reforms.

This was done through various types of the transmitting conference, study conference and the handbooks. Let me cite two or three examples:

(1) The three year plan of the re-education program from 1947 to 1949, was already completed, covering about 600,000 teachers of the elementary schools, lower and upper secondary schools, the schools for the blind and the schools for the deaf all over the country, with the aim of giving 60 hours of instruction per teacher on average, in relation to the general education, the professional education and the specialized education.

(2) The Study Conference on New Education was held in each region of the country with the educational leaders of the prefectures as the main attendants and with the aim of

ding to the kinds of schools, yet no certificate system was established, or if any, the form or procedure of granting the certificate was very complicated and disunited. Under these circumstances, it has been required to newly fix educational personnel's qualifications and to look to the standardization of a certificate system founded thereon. Thereupon, although the system of a temporary certificate had been instituted tentatively in the Regulations for the Enforcement of the School Education Law, yet, afterwards, in the light of the importance of educational personnel's qualifications and the certificate system particularly according to the spirit of democratic legislation, we intended to realize a new certificate system by law under the collaboration of CIE, learned men, teachers and all others concerned, with the result of enforcement of the Law for the Certification of Educational Personnel on and after September 1, 1949.

The following are characteristics of the new certification system realized by the above-mentioned law :

(1) Thoroughness of the certification syetem:

The scope of personnel who must have a certificate, ranges extensively over not only the teacher, assistnt teacher, schoool-nurse, assistant school-nurse and lecturers of the elementary, the lower and the upper secondary, the blind and deaf school, and the school for the nursing of otherwise handicapped as well as kindergarten, but also the principal and the superintendent of the board of education as well as the teacher consultant, who are all in need of special knowledge and experience.

(2) Kinds of Certificates:

As to the certificates, four kinds are recognized i. e. the First Class Ordinary and Second Class Ordinary certificates as well as Temporary and Special certificates, by which we intend to make teacher employment relatively easy and, concurrently, to look to the elevation of their qualities.

(3) Validity of the certificates:

The old certificates were limited in their periods of validity, while in the new certification system, aiming at the elevation of the qualitties of educational personnel, the ordinary certificates are made to be valid indefinitely on a national level while the temporary certificate is good only for five years throughout the country and allowed to get its validity renewed only once, and the emergency certificate is made good for one year only in the prefecture which conferred it.

(4) Method of Granting Certificates:

The certificates are granted to those who graduated from or compleleted the regular courses of a university or college acquiring some prescribed credits and also to those who have acquired some prescribed credits in in-service education, when they passed the examination on character, scholarship, actural teaching and health.

(5) Emphasis on general culture and on the culture for educatinal profession:

In the new certification system, the spcial prerequisites are the acquisition of credits for the subjects of general culture ranging over all cultural, social and natural sciences as

for the counter-measures to solve the problem in close cooperation with the government agencies concerned.

Chapter III. Various Teachers' Problems.

A. Reform of Teachers' Training

Owing to the enforcement of the new school system, teachers' training and in-service education which are in conformity with the new education have become important problems of the educational policy. The Ministry of Education, on the basis of suggestions by the U. S. Education Mission who came here some time ago, and of recommendations of the Education Reform Council and under the basic principles of universities taking charge of teachers' training in future, has provisioned as one of the eleven principles relative to new system national university chartering, that at least one national university should be set up in each prefecture, and in which a faculty relative to the teaching profession should be created without fail. In the national university chartered according to this principle in each prefecture, a "Gakugei" (liberal arts) or education faculty chiefly aiming at teachers' training has been established in the old-system normal school, the youth normal school, higher normal school or girls' higher normal school as the nucleus. The "Gakugei" and education faculties in the schools located in the prefectures make it the principal duty to educate elementary and lower secondary school teachers whom the prefecture concerned needs, and enroll some 24,000 students annually including both the 4-year and the 2-year course. This fills no more than one half of the number of demands on a national-wide level, while, as to the other half, graduates of other faculties of the national university and those of the public or private university, and others are availed of. These "gakugei" and education faculties number 46 in all and, besides, there is a Tokyo Education University as a university of teacher training.

These faculties, organizing their educational curricula according to the regulations of the University Chartering Standards Law, and the Law for the Certification of Educational Personnel, are making an effort in training ideal teachers. In most universities, as to general and special subjects, they educate the students by cooperating with other faculties, while, as to the educational ones, the "Gakugei" or education faculty is exclusively engaged in their instruction.

B. Enactment of the Law for the Certification of Educational Personnel

As to our educational personnel's qualifications, there were some regulations in the past, but as to teachers, although their qualifications were fixed by Imperial Order accor-

curtailment of other expenditures or assigning the contributions to the parents and the inhabitants at large on the semi-compulsory basis. Part of the inhabitants were forced to make great sacrifices as well as efforts to co-operate in the construction program. The National Treasury also shared a considerable part by granting the national subsidy. Despite of all these efforts, the shortage of the school buildings could not successfully be solved. On the other hand, the neglected measures for the school buildings existent over their durability and those ruined by natural disasters, etc., have given rise to the dangerous situations in which many of these schools are left as they are.

(2) Degraded quality and insufficient quantity of teachers.

As to the quality of teachers, as it will be discussed in the following chapter, non qualified teachers amount to about 26% at the elementary level and 12% at the lower secondary level. Moreover, there is conspicuous difference of the quality of teachers between prefectures. As to the quantity of teachers, the minimum required number has been so far secured under the Law for the National Treasury's Share of the Compulsory Education Expenditures, but this disbursement from the National Treasury is discontinued with the enforcement of the system of the equalization fund in the local finance which has started this year and the means to guarantee the minimum required number of teachers on the nationwide scale is entirely lost. Moreover, if the burden to pay the teachers' salary is transferred in the future to the city, town and village, it is reasonable to suppose that the quality and quantity of the teachers in the locality, will be entirely dependent upon the circumstances of the local finance.

(3) Shortage in teaching materials and teaching aids.

It is unreasonable to expect the sufficient provision of the teaching materials and teaching aids at the expense of the public fund under the urgent shortage of even school buildings and teachers. Not to speak of the financially depressed cities, towns and villages, it is almost the nationwide situation in which the authorities are obliged to depend upon the contributions from the parents for part or all of the expenses needed for this purpose.

Whereas the Constitution provides that the compulsory education should be free of charge, the burden upon the shoulders of the parents is estimated to amount to about 9.5 billion as far as the current expenses of the schools are concerned. The number of the school-age children who do not go to school, is nearly one million, and the cases of juvenile crime are showing on upward curve every year, and the figure in 1949 was six times as large as that in 1945.

Of course it is not the policy of the national government to let things take their own course. Studies are being made towards the establishment of the educational finance in order to secure the standards of the compulsory education, to distribute free of charge the textbooks and school supplies for realizing the ideal of the free "compulsory education" and to decrease the number of the school age children not going to school. Moreover, the education assistance amounting to 890,000 yen is offered to the children of poor families under the Livelihood Security Law to make them attend the school. Furthermore, the Juvenile Problem Counter-measure Council was created in the Cabinet in June, 1949, composed of the officials of the Ministry of Education, Attorney General's Office and other Ministries concerned, and the private experts in this field. They started the research and discussion

seriously threatening to endanger the future of this important part-time system which has just been directed towards the desired goal.

The correspondence education system is an institution established with the aim of providing opportunity for the lower and upper secondary education to many a youth who has not been privileged to receive the lower secondary education or who cannot proceed even to take the parttime course of the upper secondary school. This system came in effect in April of 1948. Besides the textbooks used in the ordinary courses, the guide-books prepared or authorized by the Ministry are published as the teaching materials and thorough-going guidance by mail is provided. The present correspondence education offers the following subjects: Japanese Language, Mathematics, Science and Vocation (Vocational Guidance) at the lower secondary level and Japanese Language, Analysis (I). Human Geography, Physical Geography, Chinese Classics, General Social Studies, General Mathematics, Analysis (II). and Geometry at the upper secondary level. When the students have completed these subjects; each school concerned gives a rigid and fair terminal examination. The lower secondary school makes the prescribed authorization of completion, and the upper secondary school makes the authorization of units in regard to the subject as in which the students passed the examination. When such authorization is made, the students are considered as having completed the same subjects at the lower or upper secondary school.

The number of the schools, both lower and upper secondary, which are at present offering correspondence education is 93 throughout the country, which involve, as of December of 1949, 3,543 pupils of lower secondary and 12,034 students of upper secondary; 52 full-time teachers and 309 part-time teachers of the lower and 67 full-time teachers and 452 part-time teachers of the upper secondary level.

As with the part-time course, there was also need for the national aids for promotion and encouragement of the correspondence education, so the national subsidy was granted amounting to 10,948,000 yen for the salary and allowances of the educational personnel in 1948 and 13,202,000 yen for the allowances for the guidance by mail, etc., in 1949. But the national subsidy has been discontinued in 1950, throwing a gloom for the future of this education.

H. Important Problems of the New Educational System

Above has been mentioned the general picture of the new school system, but the most important is, no doubt, the reform of the compulsory education system which constitutes the backbone of the new educational system. Both the national government and local public bodies have devoted their fullest efforts for the completion of the system. But there are still some serious problems left unsolved, on which some consideration is given below.

(1) Shortage of school buildings.

With the enforcement of the new educational system, the lower secondary school made a new start as the institution conducting the compulsory education and each city, town or village was made responsible for establishing the lower secondary school. The construction of the school buildings was a great burden upon the already strained finance of the city, town or village. For this the municipal authorities racked their brains in effecting further

to ordinary curriculum, and in 1950 it was feared that there will be a smaller number of applicants for this training.

G. Education of Working Youth (Part-time System Upper Secondary School and Correspondence Education)

The new Constitution provides that all the people have the right to receive education according to their abilities, and the Fundamental Law of Education also stipulates that the people should be given opportunity of education corresponding to their abilities.

In the past the education higher than the elementary level was exclusively conducted for the minority who could afford the time and expense. But in order to avoid this partiality, the lower secondary education was made compulsory, the part-time course of the upper secondary school was created, and the system of correspondence education authorized by the enactment of the Fundamental Law of Education was initiated.

The part-time course of the upper secondary level is to offer the opportunity of the upper secondary school education to such youths who cannot attend the full-time course of the upper secondary school after leaving the lower secondary school owing to circumstances. Those who are working can enjoy attendance this course. In order to make its education meet the youth of both sexes in the community, it is necessary that the facilities, teaching staff and the content of education should not be inferior to those of the ordinary course as well as the same qualification be required for entrance. Thus the entirely same accreditation standards with the full-time upper secondary school are applied. Though it is for the working youth, the part-time course is absolutely different from the former youth school in regard to the matter of system. It is conducted as part of the upper secondary school education.

In accordance with the principles mentioned above, at the starting stage of the system was adopted the policy to establish the part-time course by availing the existing upper secondary school with the ordinary course. But some prefectures established the independent part-time upper secondary schools. In some prefectures the full-time upper secondary schools offering the part-time course as well, are made the center around which are established branch schools in the neighboring towns and villages to make it convenient for students to attend the course. Thus the gradually expanding part-time system includes, at present 1,330 central schools and 1,389 branch schools; 13,450 full-time teachers and 14,678 teachers teaching both courses, and 333,355 students studying under this system.

Since the working youth are looking forward with great expectation to the expansion of this part-time system, the State adopted several financial measures to promote it despite the financial stringency of the prefectures. For instance, by the enactment of the Law concerning the National Subsidy for the Public Upper Secondary School Personnel Expenses, and the revision of the Law concerning the Share-bearing of Pay of City, Town and Village School Personnel, the prefectures were made responsible to pay the salary of the teachers in charge of the instruction of the part-time course of the municipal (city, town and village) and prefectural upper secondary schools and the State subsidize four-tenths of that expenditure. The national government also granted subsidies for the expansion and improvement of the facilities and equipment. Thus the State has been helping its development since its start, but the creation which includes the national subsidies, is

and home-making are included in the required subjects and 140 to 150 hours are allotted for them a year and for those who desire to study more of these subjects, the same number of additional hours are recognized. And the importance of these subjects may be seen from the fact that the number of those who go to work right after graduation from the lower secondary school, amounts to 70% of the total number.

However, the lower secondary school is not the institution which gives the vocational education itself, but for boys it is the place to foster the ability of choosing a future course of life, and the education there conducted attempts to promote that ability especially toward the end of its course, making importance of the enlightening experience in correspondence with vocational guidance.

For girls the curriculum aims to prepare for home life and together with democratic idea of home and its information practice of home-making may be given to cultivate the aspect of vocational guidance.

Moreover, to give such educational contents, local feature is to be fully considered to enable them to learn independently according to the actual state of the community. For example, for the agricultural, the industrial and the commercial area, different vocational and home-making programs will be set up, each meeting the local need.

Since in the upper secondary school, on the basis of the lower secondary school, learning of technical skill is given, here the vocational training is given a concrete manner. One of the aims of the upper secondary school is to perform proper vocational training and develop the vocational qualities where proper vocational guidance, full information, help for choice of work is given to pupils and concerning vocation chosen as the result of guidance, technical training is expected to be given.

The nature of the vocational education in the upper secondary school, becomes clear when we see that there is set up the vocational curriculum. The vocational curriculum is divided into agriculture, industry, commerce, home art, fisheries and other curricula under each of which technical courses are prepared which are subdivided to various subjects. Those pupils who want to finish a certain specific vocational curriculum, are required to complete 38 unit-credits on basic subjects as in the case of those who take the ordinary curriculum, and out of 85 unit-credits required for finishing the upper secondary school they have to vocation which are furnished by the school. And for acquiring vocational ability and skill in many cases more than 30 unit-credit, are assigned.

Since vocational education is one which gives skill, certain equipments are essential for its practice in each field.

However, most of upper secondary schools which have vocational curricula have suffered from the war disaster, or on account of out-of-date equipment and installations they face a great difficulty in conducting training, yet on the other hand as technique is making long strides daily and as the industrial world needs technicians fit to meet such progress, completion of minimum equipment required for education is indispensable for future vocational training.

Formerly we had a little allowance for equipment by the Industrial Education Aid Law, but at present there is no such aid. If it be not restored, we may face the ruin of the vocational education. Moreover, there is the problem of poor quality and quantity of teaching staff as well as indifference of the public toward this education, and since unification of upper secondary schools, pupils dislike labor and laboratory work and tend to run

school district system in September, 1949, and the remaining 10 prefectures were under contemplation. The adoption of this system gradually brought about such results as equalized quality of the schools, removal of the evils derived from the entrance examination, disappearance of the feudalistic sentiment of discrimination among schools, lighter burden of the school expenses owing to the easier transportation to the school, closer relationship between P.T.A. and the community and the school, and easier establishment of liaison with the elementary and lower secondary schools which made it possible to secure the consistency of the curricula. Thus the upper secondary school has become enabled to conduct the proper education of its own.

The amalgamation of the upper secondary schools was effected as of September of 1949, in 37 prefectures of the total 46, and 7 prefectures were under way for doing it. The amalgamation made it possible to spare some school buildings and teachers for the use of the lower secondary schools thus contributing to the solution of the difficult problem of establishing sufficient number of the lower secondary schools. It also removed the undesirable discriminatory sentiment about the general course and the vocational course, bringing about a remarkably wider opportunity of education.

In establishing such school districts and amalgamated schools, 23 prefectures created some organization specially designed to take into consideration the opinions of the community, instead of relying upon its own arbitrary planning. Other prefectures also tried to pay attention to the opinions of the inhabitants in planning and executing the work. This contributed much to the epoch-making system being carried on without serious hitch.

It is naturally expected, however, that such a drastic change cannot be brought about without difficulties. There are still some people who advocate for the existence of the distinguished schools. Some prefectures have great difficulty in accommodating all the applicants to the upper secondary schools for financial reasons. It should not be overlooked that such facts are giving a bad influence on the education at the lower secondary level. As to the operation of the comprehensive upper secondary school, two or three prefectures report that there is the decrease in the number of the applicants for the vocational course because the amalgamation of the schools has resulted in the scattering of the existing facilities and teachers for the vocational course. As to this problem, future efforts are needed to reexamine and evaluate the previous program, but this will go as far as to cover the problem of the necessary financial program for the teacher training in vocational course, and the improvement and expansion of the facilities.

F. Vocational Education and Guidance.

Formerly in our education the vocational training was placed outside of the main system of education, and apart from those branches which require special skill, stress of education was put on general culture and theory.

Consequently, those who receive education, also forgetting that they have to develop their individuality in vocation and make contribution to society, used to take a very cold attitude toward vocational training.

The new educational system removes such an idea and now all institutions concerning school are under one system, and importance is made of the vocational education from the standpoint of labor and its function. That is in the lower secondary school, vocational

children, children who have difficulty in speaking, and other disabled and physically weak children. They need to develop their abilities through specially devised methods of education. Now, as the matter of system, the most deliberate policy has been completed for the education of the handicapped, by establishing the special class, and having teachers visit the children kept in bed owing to illness. The Ministry of Education started the campaign for diffusing this education in 1948, sponsoring the short courses and conferences at various parts of the country. There are now increasing numbers of special classes being established at the elementary schools with a great expectation.

The figures of the education for the handicapped as of March of 1950 are: 80 schools for the blind with 699 classes, 5,124 children and 1,094 teachers and 82 schools for the deaf with 1,105 classes, 10,048 children and 1,498 teachers. The percentage of the attending children is put at as low as 20% or less. Only two schools are counted as regular institutions for the otherwise handicapped children. The number of the elementary and lower secondary schools having the special class is put at 317, with 499 classes and 15,875 children. Of the above 499 classes, only 16 classes are established at the lower secondary school. Such being the present situation, it is obvious that the need for more thorough diffusion of the education for the handicapped is keenly felt. For this, it is particularly desired to grant special subsidy for establishing the special classes.

Besides, the government disbursed from the National Treasury about 14 million yen in the fiscal year 1950 as the subsidy for encouraging poor children to attend the school for the blind or for the deaf. But in view of the present percentage of the attending children, more abundant aid is needed.

E. School District System and Problem of Amalgamation of Upper Secondary School

In consideration of the fact the old system secondary school could not be completely free from the narrowness of being an educational institution only for the privileged, the new upper secondary school was established under the basic idea of the open-door policy and equal opportunity principle so that "whoever wish could enter". Though the education there was not made legally compulsory, it might be said that the system was started with a similar character. For this, the need for the establishment of the school district system was felt in order to guarantee the equal opportunity of education. This need came to have a definite expression for the provision of the Board of Education Law that "the prefectural board of education shall divide the area under its jurisdiction into several districts, according to the Regulations of the Board of Education, with a view to diffusing the upper secondary education and promoting the equal opportunity of it."

Besides, the upper secondary school offered diversified courses unlike the lower secondary school, so that there was the need that everyone should be satisfied by being given the opportunity to select whichever course he liked. The solution was to make it a rule to establish a comprehensive upper secondary school which offered various types of course, within each school district. For this purpose the Ministry of Education compiled the "Handbook for Operation of upper Secondary School" in January, 1948, and recommended the establishment of the comprehensive upper secondary school with the exception of the big cities and other areas densely populated.

With the background as mentioned above, 36 of the total 46 prefectures adopted the

the number of kindergartens increased from 1,307 to 1,786 and the number of children from 148,466 to 228,807 and accompanying that, the number of teachers from 5,248 to 8,411 respectively.

Then there appeared the public opinion that the pre-school education should be made a compulsory one, and the Educational Reform Council took it up and voted on the bill "to desire the compulsory system of nursing the young child above five" in November, 1947.

However, at that time even the compulsory education of the new middle school was on the way toward completion, and the government and local public bodies had no time actually to attend to this matter, but recently in cities, towns and villages wherein the new middle schools are completed, need of the increase of kindergartens is gradually felt. However, concerning expenditure for their establishment and teachers' allowances, nothing is granted, either by the government or by the prefecture, and as there is much difficulty in realizing the plan of increased establishment of kindergartens, the realization of the aid system is strongly desired.

Under such circumstances public kindergartens are inferior to private ones in all respects, and also in number private ones occupy some 55% of the total, and among public elementary schools those which have affiliated kindergartens amount to only 4% of the total number of schools.

On the other hand, based on the Child Welfare Law, nurseries aiming to bring up babies and infants from one year of age to the time of entering the elementary school, were established in cities, towns and villages, and the number of those who form the subjects of nursing amounted to 215,920 in January, 1949, most of whom are of the same age as kindergarten children, and there appeared a very delicate relation between the kindergarten and the nursery, and there is now a loud cry for unification of these two institutions in view of the importance of pre-school education.

D- Education for the Handicapped

Education for handicapped children was already made compulsory years ago by the prefectures, to establish schools for the blind, deaf and dumb. With the enactment of the School Education Law, it was made clear that compulsory education should be enforced at schools for the blind also for the deaf, besides the obligatory establishment of these schools. Compulsory attendance at these schools was applied to the first graders of the Elementary Department in 1947. At present the pupils up to the third grade are under the compulsory system. As one grade is added each year to the scope of compulsory education, all the graders of the Elementary Section will come under the compulsory system 1953.

It was also made clear that education of the handicapped should not be limited to the blind and the deaf, but should also cover the mentally weak children, physically disabled children, and all other children suffering from any mental physical abnormality. For this purpose the establishment of nursery schools and special classes was planned, but the former has not yet come into existence. In the future, however, it is expected that each prefecture will be placed under the obligation to establish such institutions and compulsory education will also be put into force.

A Special class is to be established at the ordinary elementary schools and lower and upper secondary school for children of abnormal character, the mentally weak children, the deaf children and those who have difficulty, in hearing, the blind children and poor-sighted

Namely, concerning co-education, it is necessary to take into consideration various matters such as the problem of teachers, the problem of finance, the problem of equipment, and the community's views where the school is located."

Co-education in secondary schools has been an innovation in Japan, yet the Education Ministry desired its speedy practice in the lower secondary school, and in the upper secondary school, though the Ministry anticipated the difficulty of its speedy practice, it designated in any case that it should be decided by each school, highly esteeming the views of the local community.

Much difficulty is not expected in co-education in the lower secondary school in view of the pupil's age, and since schools were set up under the new (school) system and since co-education is economically preferable, in April, 1947 when the new lower secondary schools started, already 60% of them practiced co-education, and in September 1949, 99.5 % of them were practicing this system. Such is the present condition.

Concerning upper secondary schools, since they were set up making the old middle schools their kernel which were run on the basis of separate education of boys and girls, the prefectural boards of education established some experimental schools of co-education, and based on the results shown by those schools have taken proper steps. However, people of local communities who entertained some anxiety about this new system due to their long established custom, have gradually come to show approval to the results of co-education, and despite the difficulty of staff organization and physical materials, already in September, 1949, some 55% of government and public upper secondary schools were practicing co-education and there is a tendency towards gradual increase of co-educational schools.

In some colleges co-education has been practiced for some time, and at present nearly all colleges and universities observe it.

By practice of co-education, the fact that understanding between man and woman has been elevated, each influencing the other with its characteristics, and that mutual respect and cooperation have been promoted, is the result of efforts and cooperation made by school authorities despite various difficulties.

At present almost no voice is raised against co-education, but on some subjects there still remains the problem of difference of learning ability between boys and girls, and for its treatment further research and investigation will be necessary.

C. Pre-school Education

In the School Education Law, the kindergarten is treated as a school and as a link of the regular school education system; it conducts child education from the age of three up to the time children go to school. Thus general public's understanding toward kindergarten has been improved. On the other hand, since psychology which has made a rapid progress in recent years has proved from sure principles of human growth that the basic type of character which lasts throughout life is formed at this child age, recognition of special importance of pre-school education has been greatly deepened.

The Ministry of Education established the Infancy Education Contents Investigation Committee in February, 1947 to advance research to improvement of contents of infancy education, as the result of which increase of kindergarten was planned in different parts of the country, and since then there has been an actual tendency of speeding up the establishment of more kindergartens throughout the country, and as compared with 1946,

(4) The objectives and goals of education for each grade of school was summarized clearly in the Law. The objectives of education which had been effective in the former education of the nation were greatly changed, and the new objectives and goals were established under the recognition of the dignity and merit of the individual. And the close connection was worked out among the objectives and goals of education in all grades of schools, together with the manifestation of the principle of education to start from the one based on the concrete daily events and experiences advancing step by step to the higher one. Moreover, it is to be noted that the character of the university was changed so that the new university aims not merely to give broad knowledge as well as to teach and study deep professional arts and learning but also to develop abilities of leading a moral life and of application of theories into practice, while the post-graduate school of the university aims to make contribution to the progress and development of culture as a highest organ for the instruction and research of scientific theories and their application.

Under such newly established objectives and goals the thorough reorganization of curricula was conducted.

(5) The enactment of this Law together with that of the Ministry of Education Establishment Law, the Board of Education Law, the Private School Law, etc. upset the centralized educational administration and established decentralization and the independence of education. Especially with regard to universities and private schools, supervision of the government was restricted to the minimum degree; that is, they are ruled only concerning their chartering and approval of abolition, deliberate violation of the laws and orders, action against the orders made by the competent authorities in accordance with the provisions of the laws and orders, or discontinuation of school in case they do not give lessons for six months or more.

As has hitherto been explained the school system was drastically reformed by the establishment of the School Education Law and the new system has yielded good results step by step. However, in order to attain its perfect execution many problems must be solved. Especially regarding compulsory education, it is earnestly desired that the new school system should be confirmed by the establishment of educational finance

B. Co-education

The Fundamental Law of Education regulates that "since man and woman have to respect and help each other, coeducation should be recognized in education".

In some parts of the country co-education has been practiced hitherto in the elementary school for some time before, but since the end of the war, in public schools, co education is practiced as a rule, and in February, 1947, before enforcement of the 6-3-3 system, the Ministry of Education clearly declared its policy concerning this matter as follows:-

"In government and public lower secondary schools if circumstances permit, co-education shall be practiced (omitted). However, to decide whether this principle shall be adopted or not, opinions of the people of the community which forms the area of pupils' enrollment should be esteemed".

In the upper secondary school it is not always necessary to practice co-education. Estimating the fundamental principle of the new system that boys and girls have equal opportunity in education and the actual conditions of the local districts, especially educational views of the districts, the problem of co-education in the upper secondary schools should be decided.

was the Imperial Ordinance based on the supreme power of the Emperor. Second, not only was the school system extremely complicated, but the two courses of school education, i. e. one for training national leaders starting from national school, and going through secondary and higher school up to university, and the other for fostering the general public going from national school to youth school, were distinctly discriminated. There was hardly any connection between these two courses. Moreover this school system involved various problems so that students suffered from many impasses which they faced in advancing to higher education, and that the educational standard for men and women were too different, relative to the contents and level of education. These are a few examples among many obstacles in the way of equal opportunities in education. Third, the operation of the educational system was extremely centralized. The Ministry of Education Ordinance enacted as the enforcement regulation of each school ordinance, stipulated the contents of education in the minutest detail, and especially the Minister of Education was vested with too much power of supervision and control. Thus, the centralized education involved many points which impaired local characteristics and independency. Furthermore, not infrequently the educational policy of the Minister of Education was influenced by the political powers of the day.

After the termination of the War the school system and the educational policy of the past were reexamined from various points of view. Then the School Education Law was enacted with a view to reforming the school system, in accordance with the recommendation made by the U. S. Education Mission, the new Constitution of Japan, suggestions of the Japan Education Reform Council, etc. Now the School Education Law which provides for the new school system has the following conspicuous characteristics:

(1) The new school system was established by law in the Diet by the representatives of the people. It may be called a democratic reform, to think of the past when all the provisions concerning schools were issued in the form of imperial ordinances.

(2) The former complicated and irrational school system was abolished and instead of it the new 6-3-3-4 school system came to be practiced, by which the school system was simplified and rationalized and entrance into upper schools became much easier. At the same time such systems were provided as the part-time upper secondary school, correspondence education, university extension, etc. for the working youth, as well as post-graduate course and special course for the promotion of vocational education. In this way the obstacles which had impeded the equal opportunity in education were removed altogether.

(3) The prolongation of the course of compulsory education by the creation of the lower secondary school exercised a great influence over the people. The new lower secondary school was established according to the proposals of the Japan Education Reform Council as a full-time co-educational institution, primarily with an independent building and a full-time principal and teachers. The obligation for its establishment was imposed on each city, town and village. The compulsory education was thus extended from six years to nine years by addition of three years in the lower secondary school. This system was completed in 1950. Nine years compulsory education was decided to be executed also in the schools for the blind and for the deaf, although at present compulsory education for these schools is in operation only in the first three grades of their elementary school course. In this way the reform of the compulsory education which is most essential for the qualitative improvement of the people was realized.

trained, still rely too much upon the textbooks as they did before, the result of which is that they cannot make the most of textbooks as teaching aids but are overwhelmed by the quantity of the contents of the textbook or become laboring slaves of the textbook. In order to solve this problem, it is necessary to elevate the qualification of teachers, on one hand, and to improve the efficiency of the present teachers, on the other hand, through the inservice education.

Another problem relevant to the improvement of the textbook system is the transfer of the authorization of textbooks from the Ministry of Education to the prefectural authorities. This is to be solved in the near future, but it will not be successful if the prefectural boards of education are not well organized to fulfil the function.

(5) Problem involved in the vocational education.

Though the curriculum of the vocational education at the secondary schools are being gradually improved, there are still difficult problems as listed below to be solved in the future.

(a) There is a tendency to respect the general course rather than the vocational course, imbued with the tendency of the general society. There is also a tendency that the students of the general course do not like to take the vocational subjects which are offered as optional.

(b) The students of the vocational course find disadvantages at the entrance examination to the upper schools.

(c) The facilities for the vocational education are very insufficient.

(d) Good teachers in the vocational course are difficult to get.

(6) Other problems barring the improvement in the content of education.

Among the problems hampering the improvement in the content of education are: (a) teachers are insufficient both in quality and quantity, (b) school building, equipment, teaching implements, etc. are incomplete, and (c) the size of a class is too large mainly owing to the above situations. (a) and (b) will be treated in detail in Chapters III and IX respectively. Here it is only mentioned that even the in-service education to elevate qualifications of teachers constitutes one cause to prevent teachers from devoting themselves to the guidance of children, and the need is often pointed out that some measure should be taken to improve the method of the inservice education.

There is no denying that the entrance examination to the upper schools is giving undesirable influences upon the curriculum of the lower schools even the new educational system is in operation. Though the study has been continued for finding a better way for the entrance examination, further study is desired.

Chapter II. Reform of School System

A. Enactment of the School Education Law

Formerly, the school system of Japan was governed by a nationalistic spirit. Not only that, but it was also defective as a system at various points as explained below: First, the form of the legislation which established the foundation of the former school system

K. Problems of Elementary and Secondary Education from Viewpoint of Content and Method of Education

As stated above, the elementary and secondary education in our country is making daily progress with new content and new method in accordance with the new educational policy. But there are many difficulties to be overcome and many problems to be solved if it is to achieve the goal. Some of them are listed below.

(1) Problem involved in the democratization of personal relationship within the school.

In the post-war schools, the principal, teachers and pupils are put in a very democratic relationship to each other and they participate on the cooperative basis in the decision and operation of the educational policies and programs. But, on the other hand, it cannot be said that there are no cases where some teachers, misunderstanding the democratic management of the school, sometimes belittle the leadership of the principal or where the student councils of the lower and upper secondary schools lack the proper understanding of the principal's right of the school administration and act beyond the functions of the councils. Such misunderstandings are gradually being rectified but there is still need for good guidance in this matter.

(2) Problem involved in the progressive curriculum.

As a result of the reorganization of curricula, which was treated in Chapter II, some schools came to adopt too progressive a curriculum compared with the previous one. In such schools a confusion of learning activities made appearance with the result of degrading the general standard of learning ability, particularly being insufficient in mastering the basic skills and abilities. At present, however, the schools which have become aware of such defects and intend to newly adopt a progressive curriculum are wise enough to try to establish a progressive and sound program, inquiring into the causes of such defects.

(3) Problem involved in reform of methods of guidance and evaluation.

When the method of teaching and how to establish the criterion of evaluation was reformed after the end of the War, the home-room guidance became active and importance was attached in evaluation upon the ability to behave as a citizen of the democratic society as well as upon the achievements of learning. In spite of such improvement in the field of guidance, however, the tendency towards juvenile delinquency is highly noticeable due to the post-war social confusion. It is highly desired that the guidance in the school be more strengthened, and closer cooperation with the people of the community be established in order to improve the mental health of children and to attempt the promotion of their welfare. The people concerned are making efforts for these goals.

(4) Problem involved in the improvement of the content of the textbooks.

The compilation of textbooks is being made along the lines of the changed concept about the role of the textbook that it should be one of the teaching aids to help the learning activities of pupils and students. But, there has arisen a confusion because teachers are not accustomed to the use of textbooks.

Particularly, the teachers such as assistant teachers who have not been sufficiently

and coordination of school library.

Desires nearly the same in substance as the above eight points, were often expressed to the Ministry, by the Japan Teachers Union and other educational organizations.

(2) The use of audio-visual aids.

The audio-visual education is not new in Japan, but the school broadcast has already experienced full fifteen years and the films and slides are also in use for years. It was after the end of the War, however, that the audio-visual aids became widely used with the general recognition of the importance as the teaching aids. In view of the importance of these aids, the Ministry of Education has set up the Audio-Visual Aids Unit in the Elementary and Secondary Education Bureau. At the local level the Guidance Section of the Prefectural Board of Education is chiefly in charge of guidance in this field, as well as effective distribution of the various audio-visual materials. Below are listed the present status and the problem involved in the audio-visual education.

(a) Film.....Because many of the urban schools which were comparatively well equipped with the facilities such as projectors, were burnt down during the war, the so-called "Motion Picture Classroom" was exclusively utilized after the War, by which the commercial movie-house was availed of for certain hours in the morning. Later as more equipment became available and more educational films fit for teaching were produced, the film-showing in the auditorium and classrooms, grew more popular. Many schools and Parent-Teacher Associations are now using the Natco film projectors loaned for the promotion of social education. Particularly, local schools of small size which find much difficulty in having better equipment are specially benefited by such facilities. The production of educational films designed to match the units of teaching is highly desired as a problem to be solved in the future.

(b) Slides and Kamishibai.....As the slide projector is much cheaper than the film projector, it has been in comparatively wide use. The elementary schools are making much use of slides together with the Kamishibai. Desirable is the cheaper distribution of good slides fit for teaching contents.

By way of information of the good films and slides fit for teaching, the Social Education Bureau of the Ministry of Education publishes the List of the Reviewed Educational Films, etc.

(c) Radio.....The school broadcast which was interrupted during the war, was reopened, together with the distribution of the receiving sets, with a view to disseminating the educational policy as quickly as possible to save the chaotic situation of the post-war days. Now as high as 90 % of the elementary schools are equipped with radio receiving sets. The Ministry of Education in cooperation of N H K (Japan Broadcasting Association) has conducted the survey on equipment of the receiving sets and the survey on listening to the school broadcast several times since October 1947, in order to improve the distribution of the equipment and the programs of the broadcast. Now we have 65 minute program for the schools every day except Sunday and 30 minute program for the teachers every day except Saturday and Sunday, broadcast all over the country.

J. Utilization of School Library and Radio, Films, etc.

As touched upon in the preceeding paragraphs on "Reform of Teaching Mathod" the expansion of the school library and the use of radio, films and other audio-visual aids have opened a new ground for the method of guidance and diversified the types of learning activities. Pelow is given the outline of the measures to stimulate the use of these new teaching aids together with the present status and the problems involved.

(1) Expansion of School Library

(a) Dissemination of information about the new significance of the school library (Such as publication of the handbook)

In the old-fashioned education centering upon the textbooks, the school library was not more than the place to provide the after-school reading materials. On the other hand, in the new education which necessitates the use of more comprehensive reading materials, the school library is the very center to enrich the curriculum. In order to increase the understanding of the educational people about the new significance of the school library, the Ministry of Education published the Handbook of the School Library in December, 1948, and distributed it among elementary schools, lower and upper secondary schools and administrative agencies for education all over the country.

The short courses established by the Ministry of Education and the workshops sponsored jointly by the Ministry and the Prefectural Agencies, are also utilized to have the new significance of the school library thoroughly understood.

(b) Establishment of the Council on the School Library and the Study on the Standards of the School Library.

The Council on the School Library was created in July, 1948, as the advisory organ to the Minister of Education. The most important duty of the Council was to work out the draft paper of the standards of the school library. The draft paper was already completed and submitted to the Minister in August, 1949, which clarified the standards relative to the functions to be fulfilled by the school library and other important matters. Together with this draft paper of the standards, the Council also submitted the recommendation involving the following point as the problems to be solved in the future.

(c) Future problems of the school library.

- (I) National subsidy towards the book purchasing expenses of the public schools.
- (II) Dissmination of understanding and techniques about the school library among educational personnel.
- (III) Establishment of position of the librarian teacher and the creation of the license system.
- (IV) Creation of the chair on the science of library, at the teacher training university.
- (V) Preparation of Catalogues of the basic books and other materials for the school library.
- (VI) Establishment of the experimental school on the school library. (in each prefecture)
- (VII) Better organization of the Ministry of Education and the secretariat of the board of education for providing guidance for the school library.
- (VIII) Establishment of a permanent organ at the Ministry of Education for guidance

effected after the end of the war in both the Vocation Course and Home-making Course together with some treatment of the pertinent problems to be solved in the future.

(1) Home-making Course has been created in the curriculum of the fifth and sixth grades of the elementary schools. Both boys and girls are given teaching, three hours a week, centering around the practical skills needed in the home and suited to the stage of physical and mental development of pupils.

(a) Vocational and Home-making Course has been created to the lower secondary schools which all the grades are required to take, 3 or 4 hours a week. The course had been divided into minor subjects of Agriculture, Engineering, Commerce, Fishery and Home-making, until they were unified into one course at the time of the revision of curriculum in April, 1950. This course aims, on one hand, at providing pupils the basic knowledge and skills concerning vocation and home making and, on the other hand at providing pupils the chances to find out their aptitude and developing their ability of selecting their occupation. It is not to give training in a specific vocation.

For the pupil's who intend to go into business when graduated from the lower secondary school, the vocational and Home-making as the optional course is offered in order that the vocational ability may be further increased. Though it is very desirable to offer as many types of course as possible so that pupils may select the one best suited for their needs, not so many are offered at present, partly because there are not sufficient available facilities which are essential for giving many types of trial experience, and partly because there are not enough teachers who are well trained for the purpose.

(3) At the upper secondary school the curriculum is divided into the General Course and Vocational Course, the latter being further divided into the courses such as Agriculture, Engineering, Commerce, Fishery, Domestic Practical Arts, etc. Here it is also made a principle to offer as many types as possible so that students may be allowed wider range of choice. According to this principle, many prefectures have effected amalgamation of the upper secondary schools within the prefectures, resulting in the adoption of what we call the Comprehensive System, in which one school offers both the general course and several types of vocational course. At the upper secondary school offering the general course alone, it is also made a principle to diversify the Vocational (and Home-making) Course as the optional course. But neither has attained the desired result (in this regard). The very Comprehensive System, one of whose aims is to promote the Vocational Course, has brought about the very contrary result, about which dilated account will be given in later chapter. As to the Vocational and Home-making Course of the upper secondary school offering the General Course alone, too, there are a very few students who take the vocational and home-making course as the optional course, in spite of the fact that about 70% of the graduates of the General Course go into business or work in the home when graduated. This is due to the poor recognition of the importance on the part of both the homes and students themselves as well as to the fact that competent teachers in the vocational and home-making fields are difficult to get, and that the facilities are insufficient. Strong voice is heard in various fields concerned, advocating that at least at the present stage of enlightenment some measure should be taken to make some of the courses in vocation and home-making the required ones.

tangible effects in improving the physical status of children which was degraded during the war time but also its educational significance in promoting the understanding of the proper diet habit and the knowledge of nutrition should never be overlooked. However, the former school lunch program which was planned by the Ministry of Education to meet such comprehensive and urgent needs was confronted with great difficulties in its operation owing to the food supply situation of the day. If the General Headquarters had not provided the supplies for the school lunch program according to its policy for the child, welfare, no one could tell how much of the program would have been possibly put into practice.

In the period of about four years since then, the school lunch program has so developed that more than 7.3 million pupils of elementary schools, which amount to 70% of the total number of the elementary school children, are now enjoying the benefit program. Further expansion and improvement of the program is desired by the general public and particularly remarkable are the interest in the school lunch program and the efforts for its development, manifested by the progressive schools and communities awakened to new education.

The public opinion desiring further expansion and improvement of the school lunch program may be summarized in the following two points: (1) to make it a permanent program instead of a temporary one to meet the urgent needs of the post-war situation, by keeping close connections with all the subject-areas so as to make it an opportunity of learning based upon actual life; (2) To expand the program to the lower secondary schools so that all the children under the compulsory education can enjoy the benefit.

However, if these desires are to be realized, there are two extremely difficult problems to be solved. The first difficulty is in securing enough budget for the operation of such expanded program. It is a common difficulty which we confront whenever we plan to carry out a new educational program, but nonetheless fatal. The second one is the general food shortage of our country. The problem of the food shortage is a constant cause of apprehension in the course of development of our school lunch program.

Otherwise it would be quite natural to say that the new educational attempt, which is already four years old, ought to come to the stage of self-sufficient operation. But it will be impossible to solve the problem of the shortage in the supplies for the school lunch program without relying upon the help from outside, unless the day comes when Japan can solve her own food problem by herself. In particular, we are now entirely dependent upon the importation from the United States the supply of the materials for powdered diet such as wheat flour which is necessary for reforming our unscientific food habits relying too much upon rice, and in the supply of animal and vegetable proteins (in skimmed milk, soy-bean, etc.) which are indispensable nutritive elements for the children of the growing stage. So the fear is not without reason that our school lunch program would instantly be out of operation if the supply from the United States should be discontinued.

I. Reform of Vocational Education and Education in Home-making.

Among the recommendations made by the first U S Education Mission to Japan was the one that "skilled hand as well as intelligent brain" is needed for the reconstruction of Japan. Vocational Course and Home-making Courses have the very common ground in that they are the courses to produce skilled hands. Below are listed important reforms

which, in May, 1949, when parts of the lower secondary school curricula were revised, it was suggested essential to give 70 hours' health education per year in each grade.

(c) Textbooks have been prepared for the lower secondary health education. Now that there is no section of health in the courses of study, they taking its place, are to help complete the education, offering a valuable clue to concretely push on the study of health.

(d) School health consultants have been created, by which the guiding principle of school health has been founded. Also, a revision of the Board of Education Law has clarified responsibility for the guidance and supervision of a school health program.

(By the way, as to the school lunch which has synchronized with the birth of the health education, it exerts a direct effect on the improvement of the children's and pupils' physique that had declined on account of the war, and, at the same time, has its educational significance not to be ignored.)

Now, as to health education, all and everything can be said to remain somewhat to be solved in future because its organized enforcement is very recent. What must be done in haste, however, are (a) the spread of in-service training on school health and health education, and (b) the training of health teachers in a training institution.

(2) Reform of school physical training and its future problems:

(a) The objectives of school physical training have been made clear: Namely, the objectives of physical training have been clarified that aim at development of physical, intellectual, and emotional as well as social attitudes, and, therefore, stress has come to be placed on team games as the most suitable teaching matter to achieve these objectives. (To cite an instance of elementary and lower secondary schoolboys, the time allotted to team-games was 30% and 15% respectively whereas it is 60% and 40% in the new curricula).

(b) The teaching method has been improved towards giving impetus to the pupils' voluntary action. This has been followed by the active publication of guide-books in prefectural boards of education. It requires warning for future teaching method, however, that there is a tendency of distorting the meaning of truly voluntary study and falling into the error of non-interference.

(c) Physical training has been adopted as a regular course in the new-system University. This should be taken up in the chapter of Higher Education, but it is an undisputable fact that by this has the entire school physical training been strengthened.

Probably the greatest problem for the future is the completion of facilities and of teachers. Particularly, as to the shortage of teachers, the most remarkable in post-war days are physical training teachers, especially women teachers. Of late, a physical training faculty or course has been set up in the new-system university, which alone, however, cannot take care of the demand. Particularly, the training institution of physical training women teachers is poor and, what is worse, its applicants are considerably few, which calls for effective measures immediately to be taken.

H. Development of School Lunch Program.

The school lunch program at the elementary schools was started in December, 1946, almost at the same time when the health education was started. Not only its direct and

8 th grade	Life in the modern industrial age.
9 th grade	Development of democracy.
10 th grade	Fundamental problems of our social life.

Instruction in social studies: It was in April 1947 that the social studies with these contents was created formally, but it was actually implemented throughout the land in September of the same year. It was because the teachers needed six months' time in understanding the character of the subject and making preparation for their instruction. If they were to depend upon the textbooks in their teaching, they would not have needed such a period for preparation, however in the new-born social studies they are not allowed to follow such an easy way. In the instruction of social studies each teacher must establish units for himself according to the Course of Study and in consideration of the community situation as well as the interests and needs of children, and to develop them in cooperation with his pupils. The new method of instruction required in the social studies subject, created a motive for the epochmaking renovation of instruction in all other subject areas.

Of course it can hardly be said that well-grounded and effective education is made in this subject area, as it has only a short history since its introduction. However, it cannot be overlooked that the creation of this subject area heightened children's interests in social affairs, enlivened their learning activities and promoted their attitude of independent study, which gave good influence upon the learning attitudes for other subject areas.

G. Health Education And Improvement Of Physical Training

So long as the aim of education consists not in simply giving knowledge, but in bringing up mentally and physically healthy shapers of democratic society, there has been the need of introducing a fundamental reform into the health and sanitation education as well as physical training as the basis of an over-all educational program. That is to say, as to health and sanitation, the situation must be basically corrected, that the health problem of the pupils and educational personnel has been dealt with so far as a part of physical training, while the principal is little concerned himself with it, leaving the matter entirely to a part-time school doctor and a dentist. And furthermore, it has been necessary to take up the question of health as the center of educational curricula and learning activities. On the other hand, as regards physical training, instruction has had to be carried out so as to make much of the children's and pupils' voluntary activities, replacing the pre-war gymnastics centering on the military drill, free gymnastics and marches that were uniform, formal and, in many cases, smelt something of compulsion. Answering to these demands, the following measures have come to be taken:

(1) Improvement of health education:

(a) The contents of former physical education has been divided into exercise and personal sanitation, and in order to establish a comprehensive policy for the practice of this field of education, a committee has been organized in Mombusho. The first duty of this committee was to set down the fundamentals for the execution of the new school health projects (v. c. & d.), which formed the starting points for the reform of the physical education.

(b) Simultaneously with the enforcement of the new school system, a large quantity of teaching matter relative to health has been taken in as the substance of the course, in

books was low because of the imperfect preparation. In the second year the rate was greatly raised, while the third year has seen a great increase in the number of the applications, resulting in a great improvement of authorized textbooks in quality and a great increase in quantity. Thus the schools have been able to choose from among a rich variety of the national and the authorized textbooks. Of the problems of the textbook system, a question still remains as to what has to be done with the business of authorizing these textbooks by the hands of the Ministry of Education, which is to be transferred to local authorities. In order to solve this problem, we shall have to wait for the days when the paper conditions will be further improved along with the more complete functioning of the Prefectural Boards of Education. Efforts are being made to promote these conditions.

F. Introduction of Social Studies

As has been stated, one of the most outstanding characteristics of the elementary, lower secondary, and upper secondary school curricula, which were drastically renovated with the start of the new school system in April 1947, was to abolish the partition of the educational program into numerous small subjects and to replace them with broad ranged subject areas. Now it is the introduction of social studies that represents this great change.

Objectives of social studies: The social studies course was introduced as the comprehensive subject area taking care of the former history, geography, civics and such other subjects so that it may meet the needs of the new age. Its goal is explained in detail in the Book on Social Studies (1), Course of Study. In short, it aims to develop desirous personality as citizens, the constituents of democratic society, among children and pupils, and is designed to make them comprehend the world wherein they live so that (1) they may cultivate proper adaptability to their world, (2) they may realize desirable human relationship in that world and (3) they may progress and improve the communities to which they belong and make contribution to the development of its culture.

Contents of social studies: The social studies course is divided into five subjects, namely, the general social studies as an introductory and summarized subject, Japanese history, world history, descriptive geography and current problems. "General social studies (subject) is a required subject to be studied in all the grades of elementary school and lower secondary school as well as in the first year of upper secondary school. There is no other subject of social studies to be studied in the elementary school, but in the lower secondary school they have Japanese history from the second year. In the upper secondary school they are required to take the general social studies in the first year, and in the second and third years the other four are given as the elective subjects, from among which pupils should select and study at least one subject. The principal content of social studies for each grade is as follows:

1st grade & 2nd grade	Life at home, at school and in the neighborhood
3rd grade	Community life (in comparison with the ancient life)
4th grade	Present and past of our life.
5th grade	Life in present day Japan.
6th grade	Life in Japan and in foreign countries.
7th grade	Scope of our life.

The future problems are to look to the development of the methods of evaluation, particularly, of the tests of standard scholarship, nature and others and to raise the degree of their reliability. At present, what is comparatively high in the degree of reliability is the standard intelligence test which is most prevalent.

E. The Contents of the Textbook and the Improvement of School System.

Beside the need of transforming the pre-war textbooks, which so strongly smelled of ultra-nationalism and militarism, into those of democratic contents, there were, along with the movements of revising the curriculum and of changing the teaching methods, seen a fundamental change of roles which the textbooks were to perform. In the education of pre-war period, the textbooks was almost exclusively everything. It was the sole light by which education was conducted, and it was tacitly understood that all the materials contained in the textbooks were what were to be taught to the whole nation. The duty of the teacher was therefore to follow the materials in the order given in the textbooks in giving them to the pupils. In the new education in the after-war period, the textbooks has come to be classified as one of the helps for the pupils though the textbooks are one of the most important of them because of its being highly systematic. Thus the leading place has been given to the Courses of Study, while the teacher has come to have the right of selecting from among the contents of the textbook, such as adopted for the pupils according to their interests, experiences, and local situations, so that all such materials may be closely related with their learning activities and effectively utilized.

Based on such a role of the textbook in democratic education both its contents and its system of publication have undergone a fundamental reformation, whose rough history is follows:

(1) Immediately after the termination of the war, there were eliminated from the old textbooks such materials as belonging to the militarism, ultra-nationalism, the Shintoism and to any movement obstructing the international friendship. In this revised form these textbooks were used in the academic years of 1945 and 1946.

(2) Meanwhile the Ministry of Education started the compilation of the Courses of Study, so that the aims of the new education might be effectively achieved, and also the compilation of the textbooks for the Elementary and Lower and Upper Secondary Schools, most of which were finished and were in 1947 academic year (when the aforesaid revision of the curriculum was effected). Among the members of the compilation committee were found many of the in-service teachers who contributed much of their practical experience to the work of the aforesaid compilation. Great progress is seen between the older and the new textbooks.

(3) A fundamental renovation was made in 1948 of the former textbook system, in which all the textbooks were written and published by Government. According to the new system there came along with Government textbooks, authorized textbooks written by private people (which are to replace all of the former in the future), covering all the courses of the Elementary, Lower and Upper Secondary Schools. The number of the textbooks applied for the authorization was 584, of which 180 were passed and were in use in 1949 academic year. In this first year the rate of the successful text-

The significance of "evaluation" was very limited in the pre-war days, which was understood to mean a record of the subject of study and, in a majority of courses, was no more than the measurement of the effect of instruction based on textbooks through a written examination at the end of a school term or of the school year.

As to the methods of examination, there were very many types of possible answers in the form of a written composition to the questions put by the teacher, to the results of which he merely added that of his observation as "ordinary marks", occasionally conducting oral examinations. The object of evaluation was entirely limited to the aspect of a subject of study, while the evaluation as to civic and social activities was mostly put into the marks of the "ethic course" as those of behavior and a part of it was set down separately under the name of "character and conduct". And the reason why evaluation was effected was, in many cases, chiefly to give ranking to the children and pupils about each subject and, moreover furnish them with a synthetic order by their total or average marks.

After the war, with the progress of new education, such a way of thinking about evaluation has fundamentally changed, and "Evaluation" has come to be generally considered as obtaining concrete and objective materials which help to understand the merits of each individual in his development and the points in need of improvement, and to carry out a more effective guidance. And it has been followed by changes in the objects and methods of evaluation as well as in the ways of utilizing the results. They run as follows:

(1) The objects of evaluation are now not only to obtain a good result of learning subjects of study, but also to collect materials, relative physical, social, emotional and vocational growth. Furthermore, as to the results of learning subjects of study, it has come to divide each course into several aspects according to its principal objectives or guidance and to collect materials of development relative to each of these aspects.

(2) As to the methods of evaluation, too, they are not only tests merely in the form of composition, but teacher-made objective tests, standard test, observation, recording of anecdotes, interview, case study, self-evaluation, diaries and associated methods have been put in practice all round. Particularly, the diffusion of teacher-made objective tests and the increase of standard tests are noticeable.

(3) Regarding the aim of evaluation, more importance has been attached to clarifying the characteristics of each individual's growth than to giving fixed ranking to them, and accordingly the order by total marks has been entirely abolished.

(4) Particularly, the development of desirable civic and social qualities has come to be put on record in detail (22 items for the elementary school and 17 for the lower secondary school) so as to enable one to understand the personal features of the individual child or pupil and the main points of guidance clearly at a glance.

(5) To take the place of the "school register", an "essential record of guidance" has been made up to arrange and enter in the materials to truly guide children and pupils records of the physical, intellectual personal, social, emotional and vocational growth, which we have come to use as reference data for our actual guidance. As to the information to the family, it is not that they merely send a copy of the school's register, but that they have come to offer the materials to help children and pupils grow by school-home cooperation.

days is most remarkable at the elementary schools and fairly so at the lower secondary ones. And at the upper secondary schools the importance of study on the teaching methods has at last come to be recognized. Here is given some description about the direction of the teaching method and its present status, centering upon that of the elementary schools where the study in this field has attained to the highest level.

The teaching method at the elementary school level in the pre-war days may be briefly characterized as an inflexible method in which teachers faithfully followed the directions of the teachers' manuals prepared by the Ministry of Education and throughout the country offered a uniform teaching with the one-sidedness on the part of the teacher and the faithful obedience on the part of the pupils. As to the Science and mathematics courses, however, it was advocated to develop the learning activities based upon the needs and interests of the pupils, encouraging experiments, observations, measurement, making, etc. But such practice was adopted merely by some progressive teachers and well-equipped schools. After the end of the War, the Courses of Study were published in place of the teacher's manuals. As they introduced the teaching method of the United States, the reform of the teaching method was expedited in all the subject areas. The following are the points specially noticeable in the reform:

(1) Adoption of the Unit Study. With wider adoption of the Problem Method and Project Method, learning activities of pupils have become very active. Pupils take up problems for study out of their own life, and develop diverse learning activities to solve the problems.

(2) Definite establishment of the objectives of teaching.

The precise analysis of understanding, ability, attitude, etc. as the objectives of teaching has gradually come to be effected. The result is that it has become easier to work out the teaching method.

(3) Richness in types of learning activities. Remarkably different from the pre-war types of learning activities are the discussion and group study. The school library has come to be used widely. The use of the audio-visual aids, which was a matter of interest to the limited groups of teachers in the pre-war days, has also become the common practice of the schools in general. We shall give more detailed treatment on this later.

(4) Conscious efforts on the part of teachers to help all the pupils fully develop their own abilities, on the basis of the personal survey of individuals.

(5) Emphasis upon such teaching as based on the needs and interests of pupils as well as more attention to the diversity of learning activities in comparison with the past. The result is that pupils have become more eager to learn and active in learning activities. A brisk and cheerful atmosphere has prevailed in the classroom.

Of course such progress in the teaching method as mentioned above is not always present at all the schools, but it is certain that most of the schools are at least directing towards such progress. Both the Ministry of Education and boards of education are endeavoring to promote this tendency.

D. Improvement of Evaluating Methods

It is extremely necessary as a reflection on the instruction given, and for a more effective guidance, to strictly and scientifically evaluate the results of guidance by the new teaching method.

(a) Small divisions of subjects were abolished and replaced by greater areas of courses, which are represented by Geography, History, and Civics integrated into a newly-established course called Social Studies. We shall return to this again later.

(b) In the Lower and Upper Secondary Schools the subjects are divided into the elective and the compulsory. Especially in the Upper Secondary School broad scopes are given to the free choice of courses.

(c) For the purpose of promoting independent and free study of the pupils and students, there had been assigned periods for "free study," which have later developed into periods for "specific educational activities."

(d) With the emphasis put on meeting the needs of the local community, the teaching materials have come to be selected from among those really existing in such local community.

(e) Along with the emphasis put on the need of vocational education, renovation was made of vocational education and contents of education of homemaking. We shall come back to this again later.

For the purpose of trying to contribute toward such revision of the curriculum, there was established in the Education Ministry a curriculum committee. This curriculum committee has been contributing no small portion toward the revision of the curriculum for the Elementary School and other fields. Hope is left to its fuller activities in the days to come.

(2) The Compilation of Courses of Studies and Its Revision.

The formation of the curriculum has originally been set forth as a general principle, upon whose basis the teacher works out his own teaching plan. The majority of the teachers, however, have not been trained to meet such needs. Here arises the need for affording for such teachers some standards for the formation of curriculum, so that they may help them. It was for the purpose of meeting such needs that the Education Ministry has been compiling its "Courses of Studies". It goes without saying that originally the compilation of such works should be done by the hands of the Prefectural or Municipal Boards of Education. However, the last-mentioned institutions have not long been born, nor have they been provided with fully equipped staff to the work, the result being that the Education Ministry took up in September, 1946 the over-all business of compiling the Courses of Studies for the Elementary and the Lower and Upper Secondary Schools, which have incessantly been revised as need arose. Along with this, effort has been made so that the Boards of Education are encouraged and stimulated in their work of compiling their own courses of studies. The result is that many of the Prefectural and Municipal Boards of Education have already undertaken the compilation of their courses of study of Social Studies, several of which have been published in their tentative forms. Of these Boards of Education, some are already extending their efforts to the areas of other courses.

C. Reform of Teaching Method

Reorganization of curriculum necessitates a drastic reform of the teaching method in the upper and lower secondary schools and elementary ones. But, as in the pre-war days, a higher degree of interest in the method of guidance is seen among the teachers at the schools of lower level. In other words, the progress of the teaching method in the post-war

of thought in the post-war Japan had a keen feeling of the necessity of establishing the basic objectives of the national education and national morality as soon as possible in order to reconstruct our fatherland. Though the expressions may differ, the underlying motive of such demand is proper and right. That the foundation of education should be set up and expressed in words as soon as possible was the common concern of the people who were very anxious about the destiny and present conditions of the fatherland.

As the first step, the Ministry of Education issued in October, 1946, the notification titled "Concerning the Treatment of the Imperial Rescripts and Edicts", setting forth the principles of:

(1) avoidance of looking for the basic ideology of education exclusively upon the Imperial Rescript on Education, (2) abolishment of the custom of awful reciting of the Imperial Rescript on Education on the ceremonial occasions, and (3) discontinuance of the practice of deification in handling the Imperial Rescripts in such cases as depositing or reciting them.

Such negative steps alone in relation to the Imperial Rescripts were not sufficient, of course, in the face of the urgent need for the establishment of the basic ideology of education. However, it is categorically inadequate to define and present the new educational ideology in such a "from top down" form as the "Imperial Rescript", as the educational Constitution of a democratic nation. The educational ideology to constitute the foundation of the new democratic State should be established in accordance with the very will of the people and after democratic discussion and deliberation. At last such views helped unify different opinions, resulting in the enactment of the Fundamental Law of Education which put a full stop to the discussion for the educational ideology.

Thus the Fundamental Law of Education has come to take the place of the Imperial Rescript on Education, clarifying the source of education in quite a new form and procedure.

And in order to confirm this, both Houses of Representatives and Councillors adopted in June, 1948 the "Resolution of Elimination of Validity (or Recognition of No Validity) of the Imperial Rescripts, etc." In accordance with this resolution, the government took the measure to order the schools, etc. to return the Imperial Rescript on Education which was then uselessly kept. Thus the problem of the Imperial Rescript on Education was brought to an end in the world of education.

B. Revision of Curriculum and Courses of Studies.

(1) Revision of Curriculum

In the pre-war period the curriculum of our schools was of fixed and traditional types, with too much emphasis put on the teaching materials. Supposing that there had been no danger of ultra-nationalistic despotism taking advantage of it, such school curriculum had had to be revised if it were to serve for developing the individual's ability to the utmost, educating the able shaper of democratic society, and training further vocational abilities, so that the objectives of the new education might be effectively achieved. Immediately following the emergency measure of eliminating ultra-nationalism, there was attempted a thoroughgoing revision of the curriculum covering both the Elementary and Secondary education of Japan, which is now steadily under way. Since the primary revision in April of 1947, of the curriculum, the major points of reform achieved are as follows:

has been established to completely eradicate the anti-modern elements of the past education in Japan out of the practical educational situations.

Of course, as expected under the post-war situations of political and economical uncertainty and the thought confusion, Japan is not completely free from the disturbance of some social elements which please themselves in the biased interpretation of a certain provision of these progressive Articles. It actually happened that some leftist elements of teachers and students biasing on purpose the true meaning of Article 8 of Political Education, tried to justify their radical political activities designed to destroy order in the school, with contention that they were theoretically based upon the provision of Article 8. Some people are proposing the necessity to revise Article 8 so as to prevent such ill-intended misinterpretation of the provision. However, as far as the "intelligent people are concerned, no one has doubt that the Fundamental Law of Education has definitely established the very foundation of democratic Education.

Now the enactment of the Fundamental Law of Education which fixed the ultimate goal of education in new Japan was followed by the subsequent enactment and promulgation of a series of the educational laws beginning with the School Education Law which further developed the aims, policies and principles in implementation, as are discussed in the following Chapters. Thus the Fundamental Law of Education brought about as the results, the establishment of the 6-3-3-4 new school system, reformation of the educational content such as reform in the curriculum, teaching methods, etc. and reform in the national educational administrative organization. By no means can we over-estimate the significance of the enactment of the Fundamental Law of Education.

Before conclusion, however, I should like to add a few remarks about the significance of the enactment of this law. The first point is about its profound formal significance, as was touched upon in the Introduction. The epoch-making significance the enactment of this law has in the history of education in Japan, is really profound not only in the validity and adequacy of its ideological content, but also in its aspect of the formal procedure in which the basis of education was democratically set up in legal terms for the first time in our history, after the free deliberation of the representatives of the people.

The second point to be recorded in relation to the enactment of this law is the abolishment of the Imperial Rescript on Education. / When a great reform in the educational aims and policies was to be carried out, it was quite natural that the Imperial Rescript on Education which had been long held as a "Holy Bible" to clarify the basic ideology of education in Japan, should not be left untouched. / It may be admitted that it included some beautiful moral ideas common to all human beings. But / there were many points included in it which would evidently deprive it of the qualification as the educational constitution of a new democratic nation, whose sovereignty is in the hands of the people.

One of the straightforward examples is seen in the form of expression such as "Our Subjects" in calling the people. So there appeared opinions advocating the complete abolishment of the Imperial Rescript on Education or the issuance of a new one in its stead.

There was indeed a difference of opinion as to the question of the Imperial Rescript, but there is no doubt that the intelligent people who were anxious about the confusion

basic principles are indicated in regard to the necessary approaches for the wider materialization of the aim: In order to achieve the aim, we shall endeavor to contribute to the creation and development of culture by mutual esteem and cooperation, respecting academic freedom, having a regard for actual life and cultivating a spontaneous spirit". (Article 2. *ibid.*)

In this respect, we cannot help acknowledging not only the purity and beauty of the idea of liberalism happily expressed in the Fundamental Law of Education, but also recognizing realistic power in completely reforming the evil traditions of Japanese education. We cannot help noticing that these principles are provided on the basis of the realistic thinking in the efforts for the fullest recognition and the complete elimination of the past blunders in education. Now, the "academic freedom" instead of the nationalistic suppression, the "spontaneous spirit" instead of the feudalistic doctrine of regimentation, and the free, peaceful culturism "to contribute to the creation and development of culture" instead of the militaristic narrowness which considers loyalty and patriotism as the exclusive attributes of militarism, have been provided as the basic principles of education in Japan. Seeing these provisions, we may properly say that these legal expressions present the definite direction of the educational reform in the realistic perspective as well as specifically cuts off the biased, misled practices of the past education.

Such an aim and policy of the Fundamental Law of Education develops into specific principles of education provided in the Articles from 3 to 10. Under the eight headings of equal opportunity of education, compulsory education co-education, school education, social education, political education religious education, and school administration, the provisions are made for what a modern, democratic education ought to be, and consistently present the progressive direction. And it may be said that the basic principle to make real the equal opportunity of education to all, is in appearance throughout the provisions, directly or indirectly, as the all-covering principle.

They are the provision for the obligation of the people to have their children receive the nine year general education, in the Article of Compulsory Education; the emphasis upon the ethical ideal of mutual esteem and cooperation between both sexes and the official recognition of co-education system, in the Article of co-education; the indication of the public nature of the schools prescribed by law, the clear-cut provision of the teacher's mission and duties, and the provision that the status of the teacher be respected and their proper treatment be secured, in the Article of School Education; the provision that the state and local public bodies shall encourage social education and try to attain the aim by utilization of the facilities and other appropriate methods, in the Article of Social Education; the provision for the necessity of esteeming the political knowledge and the political neutrality maintained by schools, in the Article of Political Education; the provision for necessity of esteeming religion and religious neutrality maintained by schools, in the Article of Religious Education; and the necessity of maintaining the autonomy in educational administration and the emphasis upon its responsibility towards the whole nation, together with the definite provision that the aim should be set at adjusting and establishing the various conditions required for the pursuit of the educational aim, in the Article of School Administration.

When we read through these basic principles expressed in the eight Articles beginning with Equal Opportunity of Education, we can know that a new progressive program

The Education Reform Committee which had started with the important responsibility for autonomous deliberation and discussion about the possible measures for the establishment of new education, considered it as its most urgent duty to establish the basic idea of new education in order to reconstruct our fatherland on the democratic basis and to lay down new order in the educational circles of Japan. So first and foremost, it concentrated its efforts upon the discussion for this purpose. Its first result came out in November, 1946, as the recommendation to the government "Concerning the Concept of Education and the Fundamental Law of Education", in which the necessity for the enactment of the Fundamental Law of Education and the aim and principles which should be explicitly included in the proposed law, were dealt with.

Upon this recommendation, the Ministry of Education worked hard for the legislation of the "Fundamental Law of Education", and at last this epoch-making law, and educational Constitution of the new Japan, was promulgated and put into force in March, 1947. after the approval of the National Diet.

As stated in its Preamble, the Fundamental Law of Education is the law "to establish the foundation of education for the new Japan by clarifying the aim of education, in accordance with the spirit of the Constitution of Japan". It really points to the direction of the drastic spiritual revolution, in contrast with the previous State-centered idea of education, clearly expressing the aim and policy of education and specifically providing for the basic principles of educational programs,

The Fundamental Law of Education consists of two parts: one providing for the basic aim or policy of education and the other providing for basic principles in its implementation. However it holds the spirit of the modern democracy as its underlying ideology and carries the principles of progressive liberalism which has brought about the development of the modern democratic societies, as the basis of act and practice. Of course, as referred in the Report of the United States Education Mission that "there is no country which does not have more or less element of the democratic way of life", it is not that the education in Japan was completely lacking in the educational practices based upon the democratic spirit and the liberalistic principles. But it is no doubt a revolutionary fact that such spirit and principles have been definitely stipulated as the primary and basic idea of the national education.

In the Fundamental Law of Education have been completely renounced a number of the previous feudalistic objectives of education which made impossible a Renaissance of Japan, but the "all-round development of personality" has been made the foremost aim of education in place of the previous aim of making the useful instrument serving best the purposes of the State. The self-denying devotion to the abstract whole has been renounced but "to respect the worth of the individual" has been made the important aim.

Instead of the frantic belief in the "selected", people who identify themselves with the Japanese Empire, the country of descendants of the Gods, and who willingly sacrifice themselves for her eternity, the rearing of the people "who shall love truth and justice as the builders of the peaceful state and society" and who shall be fully "imbued with the independent spirit", has been made the basic aim of education. (Fundamental Law, Article 1) And then, the positive policy is provided for that such an aim of rearing the being on the basis of humanism, which itself is just and proper with complete universality, should naturally be "realized on all occasions and in all places." Further, the

democratic highroad. It was in such a way that the Fundamental Education Law and others have seen the light for building up the democratic foundation of Japan's education and developing its polygonal phases, and that through the deliberation by the whole nation and in terms of laws. In the establishment of this principle to abide by the whole nation and in all vital educational problems must be recognized a sharp dividing line between the older and the new education of Japan.

Thus has developed the democratization of Japan through the leveling work of the ground for Japan's education. But here we should not shrink from the fact that there is awaiting us another mountain of difficulties, yet to be overcome. This is what, has been already suggested we must, we firmly believe, prepare ourselves for conquering any of them, one after another, by having resolute faith in the following two things: We should before everything else be self-independent, and be responsible for what we have done or shall do.

We cannot but be grateful for the cordial encouragement and guidance by the democratic United Nations of the world, especially by the United States of America, and still seek for the happiness of being able to expect far much more from our esteemed advanced friends overseas. However, the democratic education, the democratic peaceful and cultural country, we have in our mind, could not be completed unless we positively and daringly took up the cause for "the democratic reformation of education." It should be by our own faith and our own hands that the new Japan should advance along the healthy democratic highroad, so that she may eventually achieve the goal intended and set forth high before her, attempt of the reformation of education. Have we not had the following words left us by the United Education Mission to Japan?

"Had we not put our faith in the democratic possibilities of the Japanese nor in their ability to reconstruct their healthy culture, we might have not visited here."

Nor shall we overlook the following heart-felt advice:

"We also believe that all the races and all the nations are endowed with such ability as will enable them to create from their cultural resources something that will serve for themselves and for the whole world. We shall by no means be pleased to have our own educational systems simply superficially imitated."

Chapter I. Aim and Content of New Education

A. Enactment of the Fundamental Law of Education

The post-war educational reform is unprecedentedly drastic and thorough-going in the history of the development of the modern educational system in Japan which evolved since 1872, not only because the reform has been carried out to such an extent that it covered all the fields of education, for the reform should not be considered as so drastic and thorough-going only from the quantitative viewpoint, but rather because it has accomplished a complete revolution in the basic idea supporting the whole system of education, or in the ideal picture of the human being as the ultimate goal of education. This educational reform has been planned on the basis of the definite ideal to bring about the human revolution of the Japanese people.

The drastic and thorough-going character of the present educational reform has been materialized in the enactment of the Fundamental Law of Education.

cratic culture in that it definitely sets forth what should be the educational thought and contents, how it should be developed in describing it, and in what shape such should be drafted. It will not be long before the world recognizes it as one of the most valuable classics in the field of education. The Report was for Japan immediately after the War, especially for her fields of education, science, and culture, the greatest possible gift imaginable, by whose blessing was she able to quickly set about her tremendous work of reformation, shaping her draft plan as well as prompting its execution.

In this way this enterprise of reforming Japan's education has at its start the direct effect and the co-operation of the truly universal intellect, which has enabled the education of Japan to completely surmount its long-standing obstacles such as its stagnancy and belatedness of our social education since the Meiji era. The chance that had thus happened to visit Japan in this form of defeat was in reality a precious momentum for which she had paid so dearly.

The next point to be mentioned here will be that the Report has set down an example of democracy in its ways and processes of realizing itself in education.

The danger has completely been removed of carrying out from its own self-complacency principle, such important task of projecting for the reformation of education by the hand of a single office of educational administration, or more often than not by the hand of political cliques which exercised their one-sided restrictions on that office of educational administration—that despotic and feudal tendency obviously resided throughout pre-war Japan. Nor was this all, such pre-war usage and procedures of forcing in the form of Imperial ordinances the execution of educational projects thus dictated, or of pressing anything upon educational organs by Government orders, which meant nothing but the flat denial of the authority of education, have thus been completely eradicated.

It should be mentioned here that, in co-operation with the United States Mission on Education, Japan Educational Reform Committee (now renamed "Japan Educational Reformation Council") in its developmental stages as a committee, had contributed in shaping the draft for the renovation, in its formal competency as an advisory organ for the Prime Minister, never losing its independency but fulfilling its mission of deliberate discussion on the problem. It was the Ministry of education that, on the basis of the fruits achieved by its democratic deliberateness of discussion, has lost no moment in lending itself entirely to the task of legalizing these projects and of putting them into execution. Along with Japan Educational Reformation Council, the Minister of Education as chief of educational administration has been and is now making every effort, as will be stated later, in this line of business, by establishing in each of the educational, scientific and cultural fields, a number of authoritative advisory organs, upon whose decisions he has been carrying, and is going to carry, his educational policies. Both in its draft and its execution has the educational reformation had its opportunity of undergoing a truly democratic treatment never experienced in pre-war Japan.

By establishing the democratic principles of realizing such educational reformation, the evil practice was completely done away with of resorting almost always to the form of Imperial ordinances in dealing with such like matters, to be replaced by the firm principle in terms of law of depending upon the consensus of opinion of the whole nation. The principle of reformation drafted on the basis of democratic discussion has hereafter to be discussed by the Diet and be legislated before it is put into operation. This is the

In the first place, this reformation of Japan's education after the termination of the War had its ground leveled, both on the negative and prohibitive side, and the positive and constructive plane, by the just and friendly help and suggestions by the democratic United Nations of the world. Democracy in Japan has thus been transplanted, making it possible for the reformation to lay down its corner-stone.

As to the negative merit of this movement, the reflection of the guidance first bestowed by the United Nations upon Japan easily leads us back to the following Memorandum received by the Japanese Government: (1) The Japanese Government should immediately resort to such measures as will check the dissemination of the ultra-militaristic and extremely nationalistic ideologies, and accordingly will promote the revival of the principle of freedom and democracy: (v. Memorandum from G. H. Q., SCAP, "Administrative Policies for Educational System for Japan", 20 Oct. 1945); (2) For the purpose of preventing the possibility of the survival of the influence of the militaristic and ultra-nationalistic thought, a directive was issued on "Matters pertaining to the Survey, Exemption, and Permission of Teachers and Educational Personnel", so that the adjustment could be made of the human requisites for democratic education: (Ditto, 30 Oct. 1945); (3) By the directive relating to "Matters pertaining to the Abolishment of the Government's Security, Support, Protection, and Superintendence as well as the Promulgation, of both the State Shintoism and the Shrine Shintoism", it was shown that the errors should be prevented of utilizing the principles and the faiths of Shintoism for propagandizing the ideologies of militarism and ultra-nationalism: (v. Memorandum No. 3 for Japanese Government, through C.I.&E., from Chief of Staff, G.H.Q., SCAP., 15 Dec. 1945); and (4) With a view to removing the undesirable effect upon the mind of the students, and to infiltrate the above-said new principles into the contents of education as concretely as possible, a directive was issued on "Matters pertaining to the Suspension of Morality, Japanese History, and Geography" (v. Memorandum) No. 8, through C. I. & E., from Chief of Staff, G. H. Q.. SCAP, 31 Dec. 1945).

It was by these Directives that such restrictions as feudalism, and irrationalism incumbent upon Japan's education, were to be instantly lifted, with new ground leveled ready for the plantation of democracy.

As to the positive and constructive phase of the United Nations instructing and supporting Japan's education, we have but to mention here the United States Educational Mission to Japan and its Report.

As is stated in this Report of the United States Education Mission to Japan, "It has not visited Japan with the spirit of the victor, but as a group of those who are educationally experienced and who firmly believe that in all men there lurks unfathomable ability to seek freedom and the development of both the individual and the social".

After minute observation and deliberate discussion, the Mission proposed a draft, at once just and practical, for the reformation of Japan's education. With a profound understanding of, and faith in, Japan's potentialities, it has not grhdged taking trouble to recommend a truly comprehensive and systematic plan for the reformation of Japan's education, ranging from its aims and contents, its language which is the very basis for our daily life and culture, its administration, its project for the training of teachers, its adult education, up to its higher education.

This Report itself may be said to have been and is a crystal monument for demo-

INTRODUCTION

Since the termination of the World war II in August 1945, the education of Japan has, just as, or rather far more thoroughly than, in other fields of her national activities, achieved a fundamental and revolutionary reformation. In other words, it has been doing its best, trying to slough itself as quickly as possible, so that it may successfully acquire the qualification and the requisites characteristic of the education of a modern democratic country which seeks truth, freedom, and peace.

Such educational reformation short of revolution, accomplished in the midst of destruction and destitution in the aftermath of the war, has, as will be explained in the following chapters and sections, left a mountain of difficult problems yet to be solved. With the ideal towering so high and the scope so boundless, its future must meet with numberless hardest nuts to crack. But so long as we can stick to the right track, loving freedom and believing in democracy it is sure that the principle we hold so dear shall have the support of the majority of the people at home—as has been evidenced by the press comments during the past four and a half years, and the friendship abroad, of the educational circles of all the United Nations, especially of the United States of America, whose democratic faith has so strongly encouraged and suggested the promotion of the aforesaid educational reformation. Herewith we firmly believe that, by profiting by the precious examples experienced by the advanced democratic countries, especially by the United States of America, we could lay down the detailed and concrete projects for encountering these sundry difficulties blocking the way, and that courage would make us keep to the track to the last. For our recent experience has taught that only the achievement of our educational reformation and the complete democratization of Japan's education will make it possible to save our much-loved fatherland from the errors, disgraces, and miseries deliberately woven out of its near-modern nightmare, so that it may be allowed an honorable seat among the international community membership. We should never forget that there is no alternative proposition here for it but to realize this absolute requisite. This love or rather the necessity of freedom and democracy as the basis for our education has now come to be distinctly recognized by all of the Japanese people—members of the Diet, educators and scholars, people with learning and culture, educational administrators, and the general mass—as the sole noble motive for their will to rehabilitate Japan.

Now if we are to look back upon the milestones left along the track of the reformation of Japan's education during the period of 5 years since the termination of World War II, and to try to have a purview of its future, we must first clearly distinguish between the reformations of education in the Meiji era and since, and that of this time, both in their drafts and processes of reformation. We must here record that the reformation this time has, from its start, had evidently a universality in its background, and has shown its palpably objective evidences as it advanced. What was intended by this reformation has been not only democratic in its ideals and scales of thought, but has been successfully carried on through its procedures and processes with democratic justice and uprightness.

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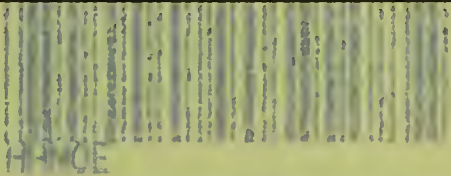
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